

LONDON, SATURDAY, MAY 4, 1839.

REVIEWS

A Treatise on Wood-Engraving, Historical and Practical: with Illustrations, by John Jackson. Knight.

From the first announcement of this work we have looked forward to its publication with great interest. Without reference to the beauty of the art itself, the mere extent to which of late years it has been employed has given it a new interest, and it was high time that the public should know something relating to it and to its history. There were difficulties, however, in the way, not easily to be overcome; it required not merely a general acquaintance with, but an intimate practical knowledge of the subject, and illustrations so numerous and varied as to be limited only by the powers of the art itself. We heard, therefore, with pleasure, that such a work had been undertaken by Mr. Jackson,—himself a distinguished artist, if not the first of his class; and the result has justified our anticipations. The volume before us will be found equally useful, interesting and beautiful—full of illustrations, every one of which tends either to mark the progress of the art, or the characteristic peculiarities of the artist. We purpose, therefore, to go into the subject at some length; and having been most liberally allowed the use of any of the wood-cuts, we hope, so far as lies in our power, to do it justice. We think it right, however, to premise that the few illustrations in this day's paper must not be received as specimens of those given in the work itself, or of such as we hope hereafter to present to our readers, when we come to speak of the finer works.

Without entering, like our author, into the pro- founds of etymology, we quite agree with him that what is meant by the art of Wood-Engraving should be explained, no less for the benefit of those who profess to admire a pursuit they have yet to understand, than of the public in general. Towards the same end we shall take the privilege of reversing the arrangement of his treatise, and giving such details from its last chapter, on the "Practice of the Art," as may render all the previous ones more intelligible. This arrangement will, we hope, make the historical portion easier and pleasanter to the uninitiated reader. Let us begin with the account of Engraving, generally so called:—

"ENGRAVING, as the word is at the present time popularly used, and considered in its relation to the pictorial art, may be defined to be—'The art of representing objects on metallic substances, or on wood, expressed by lines and points produced by means of corrosion, incision, or excision, for the purpose of their being impressed on paper by means of ink or other colouring matter.' The impressions obtained from engraved plates of metal or from blocks of wood are commonly called engravings, and sometimes prints. Formerly the word *cuts* was applied indiscriminately to impressions, either from metal or wood; but at present it is more strictly confined to the productions of the wood engraver. Impressions from copper-plates only are properly called *plates*."

Copper-plate and wood engraving are thus distinguished:—

"It is to be observed, that though both the copper-plate engraver and the wood engraver may be said to *cut* in a certain sense, as well as the sculptor and the carver, they have to execute their work *reversed*,—that is, contrary to the manner in which impressions from their plates or blocks are seen; and that in copying a painting or a drawing, it requires to be *reversely transferred*,—a disadvantage under which the sculptor and the carver do not labour, as they copy their models or subjects *direct*. ** Independent of the difference of the material on which copper-plate engraving and wood engraving are executed, the grand distinction between the two arts is, that the engraver on copper corrodes by means of aqua-

fortis, or cuts out with the burin or dry-point, the lines, stipplings, and hatching from which his impression is to be produced; while, on the contrary, the wood engraver effects his purpose by cutting away those parts which are to appear white or colourless, thus leaving the lines which produce the impression prominent. In printing from a copper or steel plate, which is previously warmed by being placed above a charcoal fire, the ink or colouring matter is rubbed into the lines or incisions by means of a kind of ball formed of woollen cloth; and when the lines are thus sufficiently charged with ink, the surface of the plate is first wiped with a piece of rag, and is then further cleaned and smoothed by the fleshy part of the palm of the hand, slightly touched with whitening, being once or twice passed rather quickly and lightly over it. The plate thus prepared is covered with the paper intended to receive the engraving, and is subjected to the action of the rolling or copper-plate printer's press; and the impression is obtained by the paper being pressed into the inked incisions. As the lines of an engraved block of wood are prominent or in relief, while those of a copper-plate are, as has been previously explained, *intaglio* or hollowed, the mode of taking an impression from the former is, so far as relates to the process of inking, precisely the reverse of that which has just been described. The usual mode of taking impressions from an engraved block of wood, is by means of the printing-press, either from the block separately, or wedged up in a *chase* with types. The block is inked by being beat with the pressman's balls or roller, in the same manner as type; and the paper, being turned over upon it from the *typman*, is then run in under the *platthen*; which being acted on by the lever, presses the paper on to the raised lines of the block, and thus produces the impression. Impressions from wood are thus obtained by the *on-pression* of the paper against the raised or prominent lines; while impressions from copper-plates are obtained by the *in-pression* of the paper into hollowed ones. In consequence of this difference in the process, the inked lines impressed on paper from a copper-plate appear prominent when viewed direct; while the lines communicated from an engraved wood-block are indented in the front of the impression, and appear raised at the back."

Of woods, *box* is the best, and of box *English* is the best, and of English box, as of every other, the smallest wood is almost invariably preferable. A clear yellow colour, uniform over the whole surface, is in general the best criterion of box-wood; hardness and toughness, without friability or tendency to crumble under the tool, which often proceeds from over-dryness, are indispensable. Beech, pear, apple, and other woods once used, seem more subject to the worm, which Mr. Jackson thinks is repelled by the poisonous nature of box. Modern English engravers execute their works on the *cross-section* of the wood, while older artists were accustomed to engrave upon the side, or *long-way* of the wood. No preparation before working is necessary, except to rub over the planed and smooth surface a little powdered Bath brick, moistened with water, and then to rub this off, as soon as dry, with the palm of the hand. Such a precaution will prevent the pencil slipping, yet not obstruct its play.

There are but four kinds of cutting-tools requisite in the craft, namely,—gravers, tint-tools, gouges or scoopers, and flat tools or chisels. Of each kind there are various sizes. The graver is a fine-pointed instrument, whose blade differs little from that used on copper-plate; unlike that, however, it must be held with the thumb always resting on the wood, so as to form a *stay* and a *check* which should moderate the force of the palm on such a soft material compared with copper. Tint-tools are chiefly used to cut parallel lines forming an even and uniform *tint*, such as is usually seen in the representation of a clear sky in wood-cuts. They are thinner at the back, but deeper in the side than gravers, and the angle of the face at the point is much more acute.

When a block has been for certain purposes rendered uneven on the surface, technically speaking *lowered*, the graver to work upon it with convenience must have its point somewhat *retroussé*, or bent up, that it may ascend the hollows without taking too much hold—the workman always *pushing* it from him, not *drawing* it towards him, as on a copper-plate. In the process of "lowering" a sharp-edged scraper, like a bur- nisher, is used.

Having his wood and his tools before him, the artist proceeds to render permanent the subject pencilled or otherwise marked on his block. But here let us quote some observations upon English *designers*, from which will be seen how well confirmed by practical experience are the theoretical opinions so often put forth, and, we may add, alone reiterated as all-important by the *Athenæum*, with regard to this subject:—

"An artist's knowledge of drawing is put to the test when he begins to make designs on wood; he cannot resort, as in painting, to the trick of colour to conceal the defects of his outlines. To be efficient in the engraving, his principal figures must be distinctly made out; a drawing on the wood admits of no *scumbling*; black and white are the only means by which the subject can be represented; and if he be ignorant of the proper management of chiaroscuro, and incorrect and feeble in his drawing, he will not be able to produce a really good design for the wood engraver. Many persons can paint a tolerably good picture who are utterly incapable of making a passable drawing on wood. Their drawing will not stand the test of simple black and white; they can indicate generalities 'indifferently well' by means of positive colours, but they cannot delineate individual forms correctly with the black-lead pencil. It is from this cause that we have so very few persons who professedly make designs for wood engravers; and hence the sameness of character that is to be found in so many modern wood-cuts. It is not unusual for many second and third-rate painters, when applied to for a drawing for a wood-cut, to speak slightly of the art, and to decline to furnish the design required. This generally results rather from a consciousness of their own incapacity than from any real contempt for the art. As greater painters than any now living have made designs for wood engravers in former times, a second or third-rate painter of the present day surely could not be much degraded by doing the same. The true reason for the refusal, however, is generally to be found in such painter's incapacity. * *

"Considering the number of wood engravings that are yearly executed in this country, it is rather surprising that there should be so few persons who are capable of making a good drawing on wood. It may indeed be said that there is only one *artist* (Mr. Harvey) in the kingdom possessing a knowledge of design who professionally devotes himself to making drawings on the block for wood engravers. Without the aid of his talents modern English wood engraving, so far as regards originality of design, would present a woful blank. Whenever a good original design is wanted, there is only one person to whom the English wood engraver can apply with the certainty of obtaining it; for though some of our most distinguished painters have occasionally furnished designs to be engraved on wood, it has mostly been as a matter of especial favour to an individual who had an interest in the work in which such designs were to appear. In this respect we are far, very far, behind our French neighbours; the more common kind of French wood-cuts containing figures are much superior to our own of the same class; the drawing is much more correct, more attention is paid to costume, and in the details we perceive the indications of much greater knowledge of art than is generally to be found in the productions of our second-rate occasional designers on wood. It cannot be said that this deficiency results from want of encouragement; for a designer on wood, of even moderate abilities, is better paid for his drawings than a second-rate painter is for his pictures. The truth is, that a taste for correct drawing is not sufficiently cultivated in England: our artists will be painters before they can draw; and hence,

comparatively few can make a good design on wood. They require the aid of positive colours to deceive the eye, and prevent it from resting upon the defects of their drawing. It is therefore of great importance that a wood engraver should have some knowledge of drawing himself, in order that he may be able to correct many of the defects that are to be found in the commoner kind of subjects sent to him to be engraved. The superiority of French artists in all that relates to design is as apparent in their lithographs as in their wood-engravings."

Let us suppose a design, good or bad, or, as will generally be the case, indifferent, drawn upon the block; it is the general practice to run a delicate groove round any figure or object, immediately behind its contour. As this groove will print white, it has the name *white outline*, or white line, to distinguish it from the actual outline. Its use is—"to form a boundary to the lines by which such figure or object is surrounded, and to thus allow of their easier liberation; it forms, as it were, a terminal furrow into which

the lines surrounding the figure run.—As the white outline ought never to be distinctly visible in an impression, care ought to be taken, more especially where the adjacent tint is dark, not to cut it too deep or too wide." Old German wood-cuts not having been wrought with the aid of a white outline, their objects sometimes, as our author terms it, "stick to each other." Many modern wood-cuts, on the other hand, leave this crutch of the art visible.

"In proceeding to engrave figures, it is advisable to commence with such as consist of little more than outline, and have no shades expressed by cross-lines. The first step in executing such a subject is to cut a white line on each side of the pencilled lines which are to remain in relief, of the height of the plane surface of the block, and to form the impression when it is printed. A cut when thus engraved, and previous to the parts which are white, when printed, being cut away, or, in technical language, *blocked out*, would present the following appearance."



"It is, however, necessary to observe that all the parts which require to be blocked away have been purposely retained in this cut in order to show more clearly the manner in which it is executed; for the en-

graver usually cuts away as he proceeds all the black masses seen within the subject."

When the cut has been blocked out and cleared, it is then finished, and if printed will appear thus:



Complex and shaded subjects require more intricate treatment, but we need not describe it, as what has been said is enough to exhibit the general process. One or two other terms of the art, however, it may be well to elucidate:—

"The engraver on copper or on steel can have an impression of his etching as soon as it is *bit* in, and can take impressions of the plate at all times in the course of his progress; the wood-engraver, on the contrary, enjoys no such advantages; he is obliged to wait until all be completed ere he can obtain an impression of his work. If the wood engraver has kept his subject generally too dark, there is not much difficulty in reducing it; but if he has engraved it too light, there is no remedy. If a small part be badly engraved, or the block has sustained an injury, the defect may be repaired by inserting a small piece of wood and re-engraving it: this mode of repairing a block is technically termed *plugging*."

Again: when black lines cross each other so as to produce or deepen shade, the process is called *cross-hatching*.

"Such lines, usually termed *cross-hatching*, are executed with great facility in copper and steel, where they are cut *into* the metal; but in wood engraving,

where they are left in *relief*, it requires considerable time and attention to execute them with delicacy and precision. In order to explain more clearly the difficulty of executing cross-hatching, let it be conceived that the engraver's object is to produce a facsimile of the drawing: now as each black line is to be left in relief, it is evident that he cannot imitate the cross-hatching by cutting the lines continuously, as in engraving on copper, which puts *black in by means of an incision*, while in wood engraving a similar line takes *it out*. As the wood engraver, then, can only obtain white by cutting out the parts that are to appear so in the impression, while the black is to be left in relief, the only manner in which he is enabled to represent *cross-hatching*, or *black lines crossing each other*, is to cut out singly with his graver every one of the white interstices. Such an operation necessarily requires not only patience, but also considerable skill to perform it in a proper manner, —that is, to cut each white space cleanly out, and to preserve the lines of a regular thickness. From the supposed impossibility of executing such cross lines, it has been conjectured that many of the old wood-

"The subject of this cut is the beautiful monument to the memory of two children, executed by Sir F. Chantrey, in Lichfield Cathedral.

cuts containing such work were engraved in metallic relief: this opinion, however, is sufficiently refuted, by the fact of hundreds of blocks containing cross-hatching being still in existence, and by the much more delicate and difficult work of the same kind displayed in modern wood engravings. Not only are cross-hatching of the greatest delicacy now executed in England, but to such a degree of refinement is the process occasionally carried, that small black *touches* are left in the white interstices between the lines. Cross-hatching, where the interstices are entirely white, are executed by means of a lozenge-pointed tool, and the piece of wood is removed at two *cuts*, each beginning at the opposite angles. Where a small black touch is left within the interstices, the operation becomes more difficult, and is performed by cutting round such minute touch of black with a finely pointed graver."

Some of the finest effects in this art are produced by two opposite methods—*overlaying* and *lowering*. For an explanation of these practical terms we still apply to the work before us:—

"As what has been previously said about the practice of the art relates entirely to engraving where the lines are of the same height, or in the same plane, and when the impression is supposed to be obtained by the pressure of a flat surface, I shall now proceed to explain the practice of lowering, by which operation the surface of the block is either scraped away from the centre towards the sides, or, as may be required, hollowed out in other places. The object of thus lowering a block is, that the lines in such places may be less exposed to pressure in printing, and thus appear lighter than if they were of the same height as the others. This method, though it has been claimed as a modern invention, is of considerable antiquity, having been practised in 1538. Instances of lowering are very frequent in cuts engraved by Bewick; but until within the last five or six years the practice was not resorted to by south-country engravers. It is absolutely necessary that wood-cuts intended to be printed by a steam-press should be lowered in such parts as are to appear light; for, as the pressure on the cut proceeds from the even surface of a metal cylinder covered with a blanket, there is no means of *helping* a cut, as is generally done when printed by a hand-press, by means of *overlays*. Overlaying consists in pasting pieces of paper either on the front or at the back of the outer tympan, immediately over such parts of the block as require to be printed dark; and the effect of this is to increase the action of the platen on those parts, and to diminish it on such as are not overlaid. When lowered blocks are printed at a common press, it is necessary that a blanket should be used in the tympan, in order that the paper may be pressed into the hollowed or lowered parts, and the lines thus *brought up*."

Convex lowering is the simplest mode of that process, and "is now frequently adopted in such cuts as are termed *vignettes*,—i. e. such as are not bounded by definite lines surrounding them in the manner of a border." For this purpose the artist lowers the edges of a block, so that the surface shall be convex instead of plane: thus the lines are made to diminish in strength as they recede from the centre, until they become gradually blended with the white paper on which the cut is printed. "*Underlaying* consists in pasting one piece of paper or more on the lower part of a block in order to raise it, and increase the pressure: when a block is uneven at the bottom in consequence of warping, underlaying is indispensable." It will be observed, that this last operation, and its correspondent *overlays*, belong to the printer, not the engraver; but we may as well add here, what Mr. Jackson says on the printing of wood-cuts, which completes all the practical information necessary for those to whom we address this mere synopsis of the art.

"The unequal manner in which wood-cuts are printed, is often injurious both to publishers and engravers; for, however well a subject may have been engraved, or whatever may have been the expense incurred, both the engraver's talents and the publisher's money will, in a great measure, have been thrown away unless the cut be properly printed.

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The want of cordial co-operation between printers and wood engravers is one of the chief causes of wood-cuts being so frequently printed in an improper manner. One printer's method of printing wood-cuts often differs so much from that of another, that it is generally necessary for an engraver who wishes to have justice done to his work, to ascertain the office at which a book is to be printed before he begins to execute any of the cuts. If they are intended to be printed at a steam-press, they require to be engraved in a manner suitable to that method of printing; and if it be further intended to take casts from them, and to print from such casts instead of the original blocks, it is necessary for the engraver to execute his work accordingly. Should they have to be printed at a common press with a blanket, it is necessary that they should be lowered in such parts as are most liable to be printed too heavily from the parchment of the tympan, when there is a blanket behind it, penetrating to a greater depth between the lines than when no blanket is used.* When it is intended to print cuts in what is called the *best* manner,—that is, at a common press without a blanket, and where the effect is brought up by means of over-laying,—the engraver has nothing to do but to execute his subject on a plane surface to the best of his ability, and to leave the task of bringing up the dark, and easing the light parts to the printer,—who, if he have not an artist's eye, can only by chance succeed in producing the effect intended by the draftsman and the engraver."

We are now better prepared to discuss the historical portion of the volume, which is written by Mr. Chatto; Mr. Jackson, however, as we understand the preface, being answerable for the general criticism throughout the work.

Our author, prudently declining to give an opinion whether the art were invented by Adam, or his good angel Raziel, Tubal-cain, Noah, Trismegistus, Zoroaster, or Moses, endeavours to prove it was known at a much earlier period than is supposed. Stamps of wood, with hieroglyphic characters engraved upon them, were, it appears, used in Egypt to produce impressions on bricks and other articles made of clay. Various such stamps have been taken from the tombs at Thebes, Meroe, and elsewhere: one, which was brought from the former place by Mr. Lane, is formed somewhat like a plasterer's wooden trowel, save that the handle is arched and cut out of the same piece of wood as the face. Babylonian bricks, Etruscan terra-cottas, Roman earthenware, are likewise found impressed with letters indicative of an engraved stamp. Roman metallic stamps abound. Among these, some were cut *intaglio*-wise, like butter-prints, and so gave an impression in *relief*; some, on the contrary, were cut in *relief*, and must have given an impression in *intaglio*. The brass stamp LAR, at the British Museum, is a specimen of the latter kind. Here, however, the ancient approach to *printing* seems at a full stop. The author, indeed, thinks it "probable" that these stamps were applied to "marking cloth, paper, and similar substances, with ink, as well as for being impressed in wax or clay": but the late Mr. Ottley was more sceptical, and, like him, we should prefer even a fraction of evidence to the "calculus of probabilities," however potent on other subjects. Yet, perhaps it might be alleged that *branding* made a somewhat nearer advance to printing than did cold stamping, for *colour*, though not just of an inky nature, was produced: the ancients used brands, both figured and lettered, wherewith heated to mark their cattle, convicts, cap-

tives, and casks. Let us add, that what shepherd's call *tarring* and *ruddling*, if, as is possible, a pastoral and traditional application of branding, renders it still more singular how the invention of printing, at least with types not moveable, should have been so long postponed: an idle swain had only to stick the black or red stamp on a blank sheet instead of a sheep's back, and thereby fix his master's initials or monogram on one as well as the other. The author does not make it clear whether the monograms of Adrian the 1st and Charlemagne were stencilled* or stamped in ink, nor indeed when the latter method became general. Kings, notaries, and merchants used stamps, he says, to mark their respective "signs" in succeeding ages; but we cannot discover his "continuous chain of evidence that the principle of producing impressions from *raised lines*, for the purpose of impressing *letters* or other characters on *paper*," was applied through the middle centuries: our author's disjunctive between stencils and stamps is not very clearly made out. We find no era fixed for the use of stamps relieved and coloured till that of 1345, which precedes the earliest date known as a wood-cut (1423) but by seventy-eight years. This wood-cut, too, being a group in a landscape, the author admits must have come after more simple compositions, which farther diminishes the interval. If continuous *stamp* dates earlier than 1345 exist, they should have been quoted. Some French writers, it is true, assert "they had seen similar marks produced by a stamp of William the Conqueror, when Duke of Normandy," and the notarial mark of Nicolaus Ferentarius dates itself 1336; yet neither one nor the other comes at all in the shape of definite evidence that lines, raised and inked, made the impression. What word do the French authors use to express "stamp," and do they use it specifically? Or what did they see the mark, and where did they see it, and is it now visible? Is the mark of Ferentarius beyond doubt a stamp, and not a stencil-tracing? These several points are left very indeterminate, and, until they be explained to our satisfaction, we must take 1345 as the highest epoch to which the chain of evidence reaches.

Most antiquarians deem that in China are to be discovered the types of all things now existent upon earth, as those of all things lost are to be found in the moon. Du Halde speaks of "the stone Me" (Chinese for ink) "which is used to blacken engraved characters;" but neither why they were so blackened, nor when, precisely appears. The two Mohammedan travellers who visited China in the ninth century give no account of printing; Marco Polo, who travelled thither in the thirteenth, preserves as deep a silence on the subject. Haython, an Armenian, who wrote his Eastern History, A.D. 1307, mentions "paper money impressed with a royal stamp;" but the *nature* of this royal stamp, upon which depends the question altogether, he seems to have considered of no moment. The author rejects the Chinese claims, and again refers to the "frequent practice in Europe, from the twelfth to the fifteenth century of impressing inked stamps on paper," for a sufficient origin of the art, though how he verifies that frequent practice his book affords no sufficient *data* to judge from. Papillon, an occasional lunatic, broached the Cunio hypothesis: which Zani, Ottley, Singer, and others sustain or countenance. These critics believe that Alexander Alberic Cunio, knight, and his twin sister Isabella, gentry of Ravenna, when only sixteen years old, finished certain wood-engravings—between 1285 and 1287—engravings whose composition anticipate

the works of Le Brun in erudite subject and artistic variety. It is enough for us to say that this fable of Papillon's appears to have even less ground than one of Pilpay's. Heineken, Huber, Bartsch, and Jackson prove its utter untruthfulness:—

"Some writers have been of opinion that the art of wood engraving was derived from the practice of the ancient calligraphists and illuminators of manuscripts, who sometimes formed their large capital letters by means of a stencil or of a wooden stamp. That large capitals were formed in such a manner previous to the year 1400 there can be little doubt; and it has been supposed that stencils and stamps were used not only for the formation of capital letters, but also for the impression of a whole volume. Ihre, in a dissertation on the gospels of Uphilas, which are supposed to be as old as the fifth century, has asserted that the silver letters of the text on a purple ground were impressed by means of heated iron stamps. This, however, is denied by the learned compilers of the 'Nouveau Traité de Diplomatique,' who had seen other volumes of a similar kind, the silver letters of which evidently appeared to have been formed with a pen. A modern Italian author, D. Vincenzo Requeno, has published a tract to prove that many supposed manuscripts from the tenth to the fourteenth century, instead of being written with a pen were actually impressed by means of stamps. It is, however, extremely probable that he is mistaken; for if his pretended discoveries were true, this art of stamping must have been very generally practised; and if so, it surely would have been mentioned by some contemporary writers. Signor Requeno's examination, I am inclined to suspect, has not been sufficiently precise; for he seems to have been too willing to find what he sought. In almost every collection that he examined, a pair of fine compasses being the test which he employed, he discovered voluminous works on vellum, hitherto supposed to be manuscript, but which according to his measurement were certainly executed by means of a stamp.

"It has been conjectured that the art of wood-engraving was employed on sacred subjects, such as the figures of saints and holy persons, before it was applied to the multiplication of those 'books of Satan,' playing-cards. It however seems not unlikely that it was first employed in the manufacture of cards; and that the monks, availing themselves of the same principle, shortly afterwards employed the art of wood-engraving for the purpose of circulating the figures of saints; thus endeavouring to supply a remedy for the evil, and extracting from the serpent a cure for his bite. Wood-cuts of sacred subjects appear to have been known to the common people of Suabia, and the adjacent districts, by the name of *Helgen* or *Helglein*, a corruption of *Heiligen* saints;—a word which in course of time they used to signify prints—*estampes*—generally. In France the same kind of cuts, probably stencil-coloured, were called *dominos*,—the affinity of which name with the German *Helgen* is obvious. The word *domino* was subsequently used as a name for coloured or marbled paper generally, and the makers of such paper, as well as the engravers and colourers of wood-cuts, were called 'dominotiers.'

Towards the end of the fourteenth or beginning of the fifteenth century there seems reason to believe, says our author, that the principle of taking impressions with ink on paper or parchment from prominent lines was adopted by the Germans, for the purpose of marking outlines of figures upon cards, which were afterwards coloured by means of a stencil. Yet neither do we find these assertions substantiated. The Venice decree of 1441 against "figure stampide" being imported, may relate to any part of *terra firma* as well as the German; and though card-makers are mentioned at Augsburg in 1418, the author furnishes no proof they were card-*printers*—so far from it that twenty years later, at the same place we find card-painters specified. But further, he is obliged to confess (p. 57) "the art both of the German *kartenmacher* and of the *formschneider* (figure-cutter) was practised in Venice several years before 1441," as the decree speaks of its being on the *decline*. He indeed

* "The principal difference, so far as relates to wood engravings, between printing by a steam-press with cylindrical rollers, and printing by a common press with a blanket, is, that the blanket or woollen cloth covering the cylinder of the steam-press comes into immediate contact with the paper, while in the common press the parchment of the tympan is interposed between the paper and the blanket. It is necessary that cuts intended to be printed by a steam-press should be lowered to a greater depth than cuts intended to be printed with a blanket at a common depth between the lines."

* "A stencil is a piece of pasteboard, or thin plate of metal pierced with lines and figures, which are communicated to paper, parchment, or linen, by passing a brush charged with ink or colour over the stencil."

supposes the said decree put forth against German stamped figures: but on what grounds? Why, that playing cards were exported from Germany to Italy "about the period when the decree was made,"—while the very earliest date he gives for such exportation is 1474! His best evidence of this art being a German invention, we consider to be the fact that the earliest wood-cut known came from a convent near Augsburg. It bears the impression of 1423, yet if the decline above mentioned at Venice took up even the short space of eighteen years, figure-printing must have been practised as soon in Italy. And again: though the said wood-cut was found near Augsburg, does that prove it engraved there or anywhere within the German borders? However we less reject our author's hypothesis than his proofs of it: admitting it as most probable, we only deny it as certain. Let us extract the account of this remarkable wood-cut—the *St. Christopher*, now in possession of Earl Spencer

—which, having the year 1423 on it, furnishes the earliest authentic epoch of wood-engraving, as applied to pictorial representations:—

"The first person who published an account of this most interesting wood-cut was Heineken, who appears to have inspected a greater number of old wood-cuts and block-books than any other person, and whose unwearied perseverance in searching after, and general accuracy in describing such early specimens of the art of wood-engraving, are beyond all praise. He observed it pasted on the inside of the right-hand cover of a manuscript volume in the library of the convent of Buxheim, near Memmingen in Swabia. The manuscript, entitled *Laus VIRGINIS*, and finished in 1417, was left to the convent by Anna, countess of Buchaw, who was living in 1427; but who probably died previous to 1435. The following reduced copy will afford a tolerably correct idea of the composition and style of engraving of the original cut, which is of a folio size, being eleven and a quarter inches high, and eight and one-eighth inches wide.

Each day that thou the likeness of St. Christopher shall see,
That day no frightful form of death shall make an end of thee.

They allude to a popular superstition, common at that period in all Catholic countries, which induced people to believe that the day on which they should see a figure or image of St. Christopher, they should not meet with a violent death, nor die without confession. To this popular superstition Erasmus alludes in his 'Praise of Folly'; and it is not unlikely, that to his faith in this article of belief, the squire, in Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales,' wore

A Cristofor on his breast, of silver shene.

The date, 'Milesimocccc^o xx^o tercio'—1423—which is seen at the right-hand corner, at the foot of the impression, most undoubtedly designates the year in which the engraving was made. The engraving, though coarse, is yet executed in a bold and free manner; and the folds of the drapery are marked in a style which would do credit to a proficient. The whole subject, though expressed by means of few lines, is not executed in the very simplest style of the art. In the draperies a diminution and a thickening of the lines, where necessary to the effect, may be observed; and the shades are indicated by means of parallel lines both perpendicular, oblique, and curved, as may be seen in the saint's robe and mantle. In many of the wood-cuts executed between 1462 and 1500, the figures are expressed, and the drapery indicated, by simple lines of one undeviating degree of thickness, without the slightest attempt at shading by means of parallel lines running in a direction different to those marking the folds of the drapery or the outlines of the figure. If mere rudeness of design, and simplicity in the mode of execution, were to be considered as the sole tests of antiquity in wood-engravings, upwards of a hundred, positively known to have been executed between 1470 and 1500, might be produced as affording intrinsic evidence of their having been executed at a period antecedent to the date of the *St. Christopher*."

Besides the *St. Christopher*, Earl Spencer possesses two other rarities of the same kind, and perhaps date,—copies of which are given by Mr. Jackson,—an *Annunciation*, and a *St. Bridget*—but, as they bring out no new feature in the history of wood-engraving, we omit further mention of them. Swabia would appear to have been the cradle of this infant art, and the cupboard, for two other very early wood-cuts were found—the *St. Sebastian*, dated 1437, on its confines, the *St. Dorothy* and *St. Alexius*, dated 1443, at Buxheim.

Next week we shall proceed with our historical sketch of the progress of this interesting art.

Rambles in the South of Ireland, during the Year 1838. By Lady Chatterton. 2 vols. Saunders & Otley.

"The principal object in publishing this book" (says the author) "is to endeavour to remove some of the prejudices, which render so many people afraid either to travel or reside in Ireland," &c. Here is a curious fact, and one worthy of contemplation. While so many among the lords of the creation are making a piteous outcry about the insecurity of life and property in Ireland, the "women folk" show a more gallant bearing; and not only wander about the poorest and wildest part of the country unprotected and unarmed, but have the far greater and better courage to speak out and declare the truth. What are we to conclude from this? Only the old story of the gold and silver shield: the parties see from different points of view. Lady Chatterton, all excited as she may be by religious enthusiasm, does not drive away her tenantry because they do not agree with her in creed; and, in her dealings with her poor dependents, does not treat them as the mere tools of her own well doing, either in this world or the next. Wherever she went, she carried with her her own courteous and benevolent disposition; and not having sowed the whirlwind, she did not reap the tempest.



"The original affords a specimen of the combined talents of the Formschneider or wood-engraver, and the Briefmaler or card-colourer. The engraved portions, such as are here represented, have been taken off in dark colouring matter similar to printer's ink, after which the impression appears to have been coloured by means of a stencil. As the back of the cut cannot be seen, in consequence of its being pasted on the cover of the volume, it cannot be ascertained with any degree of certainty whether the impression has been taken by means of a press, or *rubb'd off* from the block by means of a burnisher or rubber, in a manner similar to that in which wood-engravers of the present day take their proofs. This cut is much better designed than the generality of those which we find in books typographically executed from 1462, the date of the Bamberg Fables, to 1493, when the often-cited Nuremberg Chronicle was printed. Amongst the heaps of rubbish which 'illustrate' the latter, and which are announced in the book itself as having been 'got up' under the superintendence of Michael Wolgemuth, Albert Durer's master, and

William Pleydenwurff, both 'most skilful in the art of painting,' I cannot find a single subject which either for spirit or feeling can be compared to the *St. Christopher*. In fact, the figure of the saint, and that of the youthful Christ whom he bears on his shoulders, are, with the exception of the extremities, designed in such a style, that they would scarcely discredit Albert Durer himself. To the left of the engraving the artist has introduced, with a noble disregard of perspective, what Bewick would have called a 'bit of Nature.' In the foreground a figure is seen driving an ass loaded with a sack towards a water-mill; while by a steep path a figure, perhaps intended for the miller, is seen carrying a full sack from the back-door of the mill towards a cottage. To the right is seen a hermit—known by the bell over the entrance to his dwelling—holding a large lantern to direct *St. Christopher* as he crosses the stream. The two verses at the foot of the cut,

Cristofori faciam die quacunque tueris,
Illa nempē die morte mala non morieris,
may be translated as follows:

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The 'Rambles in the South of Ireland' are the production of a kind and benevolent spirit,—of one who, though bred in the lap of prosperity, is not thrust aside from the career of her humour by wayside annoyances and petty vexations, about which travellers are apt to make such an outcry. The writer is capable, too, of finding good company beyond the narrow circle of fashionable exclusiveness, can perceive merit even when concealed by rags, and can afford to pay tribute to virtue, though it should speak with the brougue, and walk without shoes or stockings. To give a correct idea of the work, we must further add, that it is altogether a lady's book,—undistinguished by those searching but masculine traits, which make Miss Martineau so formidable to male fribbles, at war with their own consciences. Lady Chatterton sees things only as they affect her feelings or her fancy; rarely stops to question their causes; and, when she does, never penetrates beneath the mere surface. But she has a heart to which she can appeal, and by its dictates she estimates what she sees, bearing true testimony where better stored heads and far abler judgments have failed, for want of that assistance.

We are disposed, therefore, to look favourably even on these very delicate volumes, not only for the virtues they display, but for their singular *épops*, coming as they do at a moment when party spirit is so busy with the character of Irishmen. To us, it is inconceivable how Englishmen can feel pleasure in teaching Europe to believe that Protestant ascendancy and British government can have produced the fruit they exhibit; for if the tithe of what is said of Irishmen were true, it would be scarcely possible for Popish predominance or fiendish tyranny to have produced a greater sum of moral evil, by their influence on national character.

We shall not here enter into the question whether property has its duties as well as its rights, nor assert the precise degree in which agrarian disturbance in Ireland is coupled with any neglect or contempt of those duties; but we may remark upon the strange coincidence between the results of Lady Chatterton's observations, who scarcely alludes to such subjects, and those of M. Feuillide (*Athen.* No. 598), who dwells so painfully on them. Lady Chatterton is not called on to witness scenes of bloodshed and outrage, nor placed under the disagreeable necessity of vindicating the moral character of the peasantry from a charge of wanton and causeless cruelty, by invidious statements of the oppressions and privations which have produced it; but in showing the reverse of the medal—in describing the humble virtues of districts undisturbed by agrarian disputes, and depicting the people as they are when left to their own natural morality, she arrives at the same demonstration, and equally proves to us that the Irish peasantry are no anomaly in the human species. If, however, Lady Chatterton is to be credited (and we are satisfied that, after making reasonable allowance for a lady's tendencies to over-colouring, her statements are true), it is not enough to say that the morality of the Irish is not very much below par. We must admit (mortifying as it may be to our assumption of religious superiority, and of general illumination) that, in many respects, they are more morally sound than our own people. If their passions are more prompt and uncalculating, their domestic affections are warmer, however unregulated its demonstrations; their susceptibility to the finer distinctions of right and wrong is keener, and their sense of the minor decencies and charities of social intercourse more awakened: they are more grateful for kindness, more sympathizing with misfortune, more polished in their deference to superiors, where deference

is not mere lip honour, (for then it is servile and hollow,) than their equals in station on this side the channel. True it is, that they are vindictive, hasty, intemperate in the use of spirits, and often perverse,—that, partaking but little in the rights of property and the protection of law, they have not that respect for either, which, under the circumstances, it is folly to expect of them; but the very irritability, the impulsive re-action on injustice which occasion these errors, are not inoperative, where their consequences can be turned to good, and can be enlisted on the side of humanity. Nay, we will venture, at whatever risk of offence, to assert our own belief, that much of this comparative refinement in an Irish peasant's modes of moral thinking (more especially that of the women) is directly referable to the teachings of the Catholic clergy. Whatever may be the extent of political misdirection attributable to this influential body, however gross the superstitions may be deemed which it inculcates as religious doctrine and practice, it has not, and cannot be charged with any interest in making the peasantry generally immoral; and whether the priests be thought to frequent the cabin for lucre, for the purposes of influence and authority, or through an honest zeal in the discharge of their ministerial functions, they must communicate portion of their own illumination to those with whom they daily converse; and must exercise the minds of their hearers on an order of ideas and of sentiments unknown to our own Kentish boors, or to the manufacturing paupers of Leeds and Manchester. Let us not, however, be misunderstood, as making any assertion as to the character of this agency in all its consequences. We are inclined to think that the incidental good is purchased by a great sacrifice of intellectual independence; and that more free agency than is consistent with the Catholic system is necessary to the healthy action of mind. The characteristics which Lady Chatterton describes, exist in great purity only in the wilder districts, where manners are simple, and the social circulation limited; and the moral influence of the clergy is similarly circumscribed. In the great towns and in the rural districts of Leinster, the standard of moral sensibility is lower, and deleterious influences prevail to a greater extent in determining the character of the peasantry.

But we are forgetting that it is not our own testimony, but Lady Chatterton's that our readers will require: let us then take an example, in the following scene. The Lady has landed from a boating party, accompanied only by her maid, on a spot so rude and lonely, that she can get no conveyance but the low-backed car,—the farmer's ordinary means of carrying his produce to market, and a conveyance compared to which an English cart is my Lord Mayor's coach:—

"Except the pretty Glebe House, Adrigole contains only a few scattered cabins, not one of which appeared big enough to shelter any animal larger than a pig. Ten miles, 'only ten Irish miles,' was stated to be the distance to Castleton; but rather than encounter my bitter enemy, the sea, in the dark, and in an open boat, I said I would walk. This was declared to be impossible. But, while we were all debating the subject, a woman came up and asked if we would come and rest ourselves a little at the clergyman's; she added, that he was unluckily from home, but that she knew he would be very happy to see any travellers at his house, all the same, and nothing would make him so well pleased as to hear that they had been comfortable there. We smiled at her good-natured bull, and still more good-natured face, but told her we were pressed for time. 'And is the lady going up the mountain too?' she enquired, with a face of alarm. 'Oh no,' said I, 'but I wish very much that I could get on to Castleton by land.' 'And sure why can't ye? is'n it for the likes of you to do as is, most plasing to ye?' I soon discovered that the clergyman's maid servant was one of those

sort of people whom it is delightful to meet with when we are in a dilemma. A person who never thinks anything impossible, a character full of suggestion and comfortable expedients, and whose energy is sure to help one in any emergency. In less than half an hour a cart and horse appeared; where they came from I never could learn; they seemed to spring out of the rocks at the behest of this most comforting woman. *

"Variety is certainly pleasant, even when that variety is caused by the most dislocating of conveyances; and I enjoyed the journey extremely. * * There were few habitations along the side of the road, but we met some of the wildest looking people I ever beheld—wild, I mean, in appearance, not manners—for I was particularly struck with the civil respectful way in which they all bowed to us, even though we travelled on the commonest vehicle. Many stopped to speak to our driver; perhaps to enquire by what chance he was driving such an unusual load as two bonnetted females. But their curiosity was not obtrusive; and though they were evidently surprised, they did not stare at us disagreeably. The appearance of the dwellings of the peasantry was more truly wretched than any I have ever seen. The people, particularly the children, were worse clothed. *Some of the younger children, completely naked, were playing about before the miserable hovels.* How strange that such rude habitations should send forth a people of such good and refined manners, 'who be,' as our driver said, 'the civilest spoken folks in all Ireland, and have more good will to each other than is to be found in any other country on the face of the wide world.' "

These at least are not traits of "ferocious savagery;" still less so those depicted in the following extract—which, however, we must abridge:—

"While I was occupied in sketching, a poor man carrying a child in his arms accosted me. There are so few beggars in these unfrequented parts, that I looked up at him with curiosity. Although his clothes were tattered, and his countenance was haggard, it was not charity that he required. He was young and handsome, but his cheeks were pale, and there was an expression of sorrow and deep feeling in his large dark eyes. The poor little child he was holding with all a mother's gentle care, looked ill and thin. 'Madam, will yer honor be pleased to tell me what's the hour?' said he. I answered him, that it was about four o'clock. 'Is it no more then?' said he; 'sure 'tis a weary long time since I have been in these parts, and the shadows of the Almighty's sun seem changed since then.'—'Where are you going?' I enquired. A tear started to the poor man's eye as he said,—"Tis to Castleton back, I am going this blessed day, and sure 'tis a sad heart I am carrying along with me. * * Four years ago, I went away full of riches and happiness, and now I return desolate and broken-hearted. I took away with me the pride o' the place; the prettiest girl in all Munster, who refused many a good offer, and angered her parents by loving me. Ah! madam, if you had seen my Noreen, you would have seen the most beautiful eyes in the world, and the best too, for she never caused a tear to flow from mortal eye, no not even from her dear mother's, when she declared she would live and die a maid, rather than marry any boy, but her own Ned—that was myself and no other. Her parents forgave her, as well they might, for sure Noreen's beseeching eyes would make even a savage beast as quiet as a lamb. They consented to our marriage, and let their darling follow the fortunes of an unworthy spalpeen like myself.—Oh! home—Oh! home—what'll I do?—how'll I ever—deep is the grief that is mine this day, and cursed will be the tongue that's to tell them their darling is gone—gone from all of us—gone to live among creatures more worthy of her than us.'—Wishing if possible to soothe his extreme grief, I observed to him, 'But, my good man, you have a child left.'—'Oh! then praised be God for having left this little picture of Noreen to comfort me, any how, and blessings be upon your lips for telling me to think o' that,' he continued, his large eyes beaming with gratitude. 'Sure wasn't this weenock the only thing that prevented me from being now at the side of Noreen's grave. Wasn't it this her child that smiled

on me so sweetly that I feel sometimes as if Noreen herself was looking at me.—For ma'am, we had hard times of it, at Waterford. When I went there work was scarce, and only that neither of us could bear to come back poorer than we went, we should ha' come long ago to the dear place, where we were both born in, and then Noreen would not have died may be. But God's will be done. We was both too proud. We didn't like our friends to see we had failed, and I couldn't bear the thoughts of appearing before the boys she had refused to marry, and hearing them say, 'look there at that spalpeen, who took away Noreen, but didn't know how to make a fortin for her; and so we suffered,' &c.

Making every allowance for the romance which may have been thrown over the tale in the telling, the traits themselves remain to speak for the sentiments of this humble orator. We remark in him that strong yearning for sympathy and that confiding trust in human nature, which render an Irishman ever garrulous in his misery, and eloquent in his garrulity. He has no suspicion of the heartlessness and coldness incidental to civilized life; but addresses himself to a woman of fashion or a London dandy, with the same conviction of exciting an interest, as if he spoke to his own equal and companion. He dreams not that the attention he awakens is one of mere hoaxing curiosity; and he has no reserves, no artifices. Then, the honest pride, the resignation, the tenderness, the poetical imaginations in which this wayside wanderer clothes coming events, are not compatible with a hardened or a brutalized nature; and we know that such feelings are almost universal among that class of peasantry, called in their own phrase "dacent people." Again, we have a similar illustration a few pages further on:—

"I entered this humble dwelling, as I have frequently done in many parts of Ireland, but never did I see the abode of a human being so entirely destitute of all that apparently could make life comfortable. No bed, not even heap of fern or straw, was to be seen. The woman was sitting on a basket, and she wiped the only stool there was with the corner of her apron, and begged the lady would 'rest a while.' Her neatness of dress, as well as expression of countenance, formed a striking contrast to the wretched hovel. Her net cap was clean and well plaited—her bright green petticoat was covered by an apron of snowy whiteness, and the red silk handkerchief which was round her neck looked as if it had been just taken out of a nice wardrobe. Yet no dresser—no box was to be seen in the place. In the course of conversation, we discovered that she and her husband had only taken possession of the hovel on that morning. They had come from Kenmare in hopes of finding work in the neighbourhood, and this was to be their future home. Here they were to live and toil, and hope for better times; and they were contented to do so, and evidently did not repine at their hard fate, or fear the misery which in the cold winter nights they must experience in that dwelling! * * In answer to our question, whether she was not sorry to find such a miserable abode,—"My husband is with me, and he thinks we shall get on well, and, with the blessing of God, I hope we will."

Another distinctive trait of the Irish peasant's character is charity, with which Parliamentary Reports are making us acquainted. On this subject hear Lady Chatterton:—

"In a corner was the scanty store of potatoes, which looked hardly sufficient to supply the wants of the family for a single day. And yet to that little heap, I have seen the poor woman of the house invariably turn at the appeal, and taking two or three of the best potatoes in it, give them to the beggar with a cheerful—"Here honest woman, you're kindly welcome to 'em, an' I wish it was more I had to give ye.' Lodging they never refuse; a thing that perhaps will appear more strange to your English ideas than what I have already told you: though among the poor here, such cheap charity is thought very little of. I have known a woman and her sick daughter to be kept for months in a cabin in the village of Clarina; and when I remarked to the

owner one day, how kind it was in him to allow them to stay there, he said, in quite a surprised tone of voice, 'Ah thin 'twould be a queer thing for any Christian to refuse a craythur that wanted it, a corner of the cabin, and a lock of straw to lie on. What harm would it do a body for them just to stretch under the same roof, poor, quiet craythurs?' * *

"This and other marks of interest and civility, which we met with, could not proceed from desire of gain, for none of the poor people would take money. One tattered old man to whom we offered a trifle, said, when declining it for himself, that he would be glad if their honour would give something to the mother of the poor young girl who lay in the coffin, as she had in a few weeks lost a husband, a son, and this daughter, and was left with six young children to provide for, and another coming."

Lady Chatterton's evidence is not, however, one-sided. She is not blind to the errors of her friends:—

"What must strike a stranger most in a visit to this country, if he happen to preserve his own senses, is the utter deficiency of that useful quality, common sense, in the inhabitants. As in quarrels between man and wife there are generally faults on both sides—so it is in the dissensions between different classes in poor Ireland. There are faults everywhere. The Protestants, Roman Catholics, landowners, and peasants, high and low, rich and poor, are all more violent, more full of party spirit, in short more angry, than in any other country. It seems as if there were something in the atmosphere of Ireland which is unfavourable to the growth of common sense, and moderation in its inhabitants; and which is not without an influence even on those who go there with their brains fairly stocked with that most useful quality. * * Every one who comes among the Irish is immediately hooked into some party; and, unless he possess a most independent mind, and a sufficiency of self-confidence to enable him to see with his own eyes, he is sure to judge of everything according to the ideas of that party with which he happens to associate. This is the origin of those strange and contradictory reports which are in circulation as to the state of Ireland. Common sense, I repeat, is lamentably wanted; and this occasions all other wants. Want of sense peeps through the open door and stuffed up window of every hovel. It is plainly stamped on everything that is done or left undone. You may trace it in the dung heap which obstructs the path to the cabin; in the smoke which finds an outlet through every opening but a chimney. You may see it in the warm cloaks which are worn in the hottest day in summer—in the manner a peasant girl carries her basket behind her back. This is generally done by folding her cloak, her only cloak, round it, and thus throwing the whole weight of the basket on this garment, of course to its no small detriment. This same want of sense lurks, too, under the great heavy coat, which the men wear during violent exertion in hot weather. In short, it is obvious in a thousand ways."

Again, apropos to Irish frugality, we have this drawback:—

"A poor child was very ill—dying, to all appearance. The doctor ordered nourishment as the only means of saving its life.—'You must get some meat immediately,' he said, 'and make broth for the child.' 'Ah where would the likes of us get meat?' mumbled the mother, when the doctor was gone. 'Sure the beef would cost fourpence, and where would we get fourpence, I'd like to know?' The child died—and the same evening the father went to the gentleman in whose employment he was, to get *thirty shillings* in advance to wake the corpse. Thus they who could not command fourpence to save their child when living, contrived to procure thirty shillings to 'wake' him when dead."

We have been tempted by the moral to dwell longer on this subject than we can find warrant for in the work before us. We are well disposed to give full credit to Lady Chatterton, for kind feelings and the best intentions, but she has a sad habit of indulging in fine writing and superfine sentiment. There is throughout her work a great deal too much of what an ill-natured critic would call twaddle, and

what every critic would object to as redundancy in epithet,—a profuse scattering of "nices," "pretties," "beautifuls," and the like explosive garnishings. She recalled to our recollection, on a hundred occasions, the Lady Eglantine, of old Geoffrey Chaucer:—

Sikerly she was of great deport,
And ful pleasant and amiable of port,
And peined hire to contrefeten chere,
Of court and ben establish of manere,
And to ben holden digne of reverence.
But for to speken of her conscience,
She was so charitable and so pitous,
She wold wepe if that she saw a mous
Caught in a trap, if it were ded or bleede.

Her "pencillings by the way" are, however, less tawdry than her pen-and-ink sketches, and convey an accurate notion enough of the peculiar character of Irish scenery. The volumes are illustrated with many lithographs, and frequent wood-cuts of monumental antiquities. Some of the latter are curious; but the Ogham inscriptions, of which we have many specimens, are less interesting, and, truth to tell, excite most provoking recollections of a London milk-score.

The Court of King James the First; by Dr. Godfrey Goodman, Bishop of Gloucester; with Letters, now first published. By John S. Brewer, M.A. 2 vols. Bentley.

Bishop Goodman, the author of these memoirs, was a nephew of Dr. Gabriel Goodman, Dean of Westminster, one of the translators of our Bible. In 1617 he was appointed a canon of Windsor, in 1620 Dean of Rochester, and in 1625 was made Bishop of Gloucester: thus he was both ear-witness and eye-witness of most of the circumstances he describes. In his religious views he was what is usually termed "high church;" indeed, on many subjects, he held what the Puritans called "arrant papistical notions;" he having, "at his proper cost," repaired the high cross at Windsor, during the reign of Charles the First, and "caused to be painted thereon," on the one side the Crucifixion, and on the other the Resurrection; and having also, on many occasions, expressed himself very favourably respecting the doctrines and ceremonies of the church of Rome. In consequence of the breaking out of "the great rebellion," as the editor most orthodoxy terms the struggle of 1642, Bishop Goodman suffered severe losses, and, retiring into obscurity, found an asylum in the house of Mrs. Sibilla Aglionby, at Westminster, where the present memoir was written. The date of this work is verified by the circumstance of its being intended as an answer to Sir Antony Weldon's "Court of James the First," which appeared in 1650; and it seems to have originated in the natural, indeed praiseworthy, desire to vindicate the character of his old master and friend, as well as that of his favourites, from the aspersions and grievous charges which Weldon brought against them.

It is honourable to Bishop Goodman, that, though deprived of his revenues, and stripped of the dignity of his high office,—reduced from being the companion of kings and nobles, to dependence on the bounty of a private gentlewoman,—he never once descends to low abuse of those by whose triumph he fell. It was, probably, this "quiet spirit," that recommended him to the notice and good offices of Cromwell, to whom, in 1653, he dedicated a theological work. The fact is worthy the notice of those who are so eager to point out the intolerance of the Protectorate,—that a deprived bishop, who was suspected alike by his brethren and the Puritans, of being a concealed Papist, could take up his unmolested residence,—in company with his friend, a Dominican friar, and Chaplain to Henrietta Maria,—in the immediate vicinity of Whitehall, and remain there, in peace and comfort, until his death in 1655.

We have given the foregoing sketch of the writer, because, from his character, that of his work may be well inferred. "What I shall relate of my own knowledge, God knows is most true," says he, "and my conjecturals I conceive to be true, but do submit them to better judgment: and whereas the knight [Weldon] is pleased to speak some things on the word of a gentleman, truly what I write shall be *'in verbo sacerdotis'*, which I did ever conceive to be an oath." He then commences his very desultory narrative, ranging from Elizabeth and her times, to James and his times, and then back to Elizabeth, with that earnest simplicity, and undistinguished expression of attachment to those whom he endeavours to vindicate, which stamp his sincerity and good faith on every page. Here is a youthful reminiscence of Elizabeth:—

"In the year '88, I did then live at the upper end of the Strand near St. Clement's Church, when suddenly there came a report unto us, (it was in December, much about five of the night, very dark,) that the Queen was gone to council, and if you will see the Queen you must come quickly. Then we all ran; when the Court gates were set open, and no man did hinder us from coming in. There we came where there was a far greater company than was usually at Lenten Sermons; and when we had staid there an hour and that the yard was full, there being a number of torches, the Queen came out in great state. Then we cried, 'God save your majesty! God save your majesty!' Then the Queen turned unto us and said, 'God bless you all, my good people!' Then we cried again, 'God save your majesty! God save your majesty!' Then the Queen said again unto us, 'You may well have a greater prince, but you shall never have a more loving prince:' and so looking one upon another awhile the Queen departed. This wrought such an impression upon us, for shows and pageants are ever best seen by torch-light, that all the way long we did nothing but talk what an admirable queen she was, and how we would adventure our lives to do her service. Now this was in a year when she had most enemies, and how easily might they have then gotten into the crowd and multitude to have done her a mischief! But here we were to come in at the Court gates, and there was all the danger of searching."

He gives many other instances of Elizabeth's apparent carelessness of danger, and certainly contrasts her courage with the pusillanimity of her successor, in a manner little creditable to the latter. He remarks that James "wore quilted doublets stiletto proof;" and in the following account of the rise of Buckingham, corroborates the story that the cowardly monarch could not endure even the sight of a drawn sword:—

"When Somerset did apparently fall, then all the means were wrought to bring on Mr. George Villiers, which they were not so forward to promote as the King did long to have it effected; and upon a St. George's Day, the Queen and the Prince being in the bedchamber with the King, it was so contrived that Buckingham should be in some nearness to be called in upon any occasion; and when the Queen saw her own time, he was called in. Then did the Queen speak to the Prince to draw out the sword and to give it her; and immediately with the sword drawn she kneeled to the king and humbly beseeched his Majesty to do her that special favour as to knight this noble gentleman, whose name was George, for the honour of St. George whose feast he now kept. The king at first seemed to be afraid that the Queen should come to him with a naked sword, but then he did it very joyfully; and it might very well be that it was his own contriving, for he did much please himself with such inventions."

Although so high a churchman, it may surprise some of our readers to find what liberal views Bishop Goodman held respecting the kingly power. It will, however, generally be found, that those of the clergy who were most inclined to "papistry," as it was called, even from the days of Thomas à Becket, down to those of the Jacobite Archbishop Sancroft, held opinions far more favourable to civil freedom, than the Cran-

mers, and Aylmers, and Bancrofts, who viewed the church as a portion of the state, and therefore dependent on the sole will of the sovereign. The following extract is curious on this account:

"King James, not interposing any further in controversies of religion, began now to teach subjects their loyalty and obedience, and that they were subject wholly to the king, who immediately, under God, was to govern them. And to this end there came forth a book entitled 'God and the King,' wherein were many opinions tending wholly to the advancing of regality; as that kings receive their regality wholly from God, that the church and the people confer nothing to their power. Now, seeing that all kings have not alike power, all have not alike bounds and limitations, but some kings are more absolute than others; therefore it must either be showed where God made the difference, or else the difference must be ascribed to some other, and consequently the power: and if the power be transferred, then surely for the abuse of the power and for exercising any tyranny princes are to be unacceptable; and being unacceptable, it must not be only in shows and words, but such a course may be taken as may tend to reformation; for it is not credible that God should create millions of millions to serve one prince, but only the office of a prince is erected to preserve those millions. This King James did acknowledge by giving this motto on his coin—*salus populi supra lex*; and therefore those were but opinions of some others, who in their falsehood and flattery did broach them to the infinite prejudice of kings, for it made them odious, and made the people rather desire to be governed by a representative body. These flatterers proceeded further, that if princes should intend to destroy their subjects, yet their subjects were bound to obey them; yea, further, if they should destroy all religion and labour as much as they could to bring in atheism, yet their subjects had no other way to resist them but with their prayers and tears unto God. These were strange and lying positions."

This account of Bacon is worth extracting:—

"Bacon certainly was a man of very great intellectuals, and a man who did every way comply with the King's desires; and he was a great projector in learning, as did appear by his 'Advancement of Learning,' to which book I would have given some answer, if I durst have printed it. Over other men he did insult, and took bribes on both sides; and had this property, that he would not question any man for words against him, as knowing himself to be faulty, and therefore would not bring his adversaries upon the stage. Secretary Winwood was a man of courage, and the difference fell out upon a very small occasion, that Winwood did beat his dog from lying upon a stool, which Bacon seeing, said that every gentleman did love a dog. This passed on; then at the same time, having some business to sit upon, it should seem that Secretary Winwood sat too near my lord keeper; and his lordship willed him either to keep or to know his distance. Whereupon he arose from table, and I think he did him no good office. It is certain there were many exceptions against Bacon: no man got more dishonestly, and no man spent more wastefully; and how fit this man was to carry the King's conscience, whom I believe no other man would trust!"

It is amusing to think of the worthy, but certainly not very profound, bishop intending to answer Bacon.

On the more important incidents of James's reign, we do not find that any additional light is thrown by these memoirs. Bishop Goodman's characters both of Somerset and Buckingham are drawn with a flattering pencil—so much so, indeed, that, but for our conviction of his sincerity, we should have taxed him with suppressing the truth. The following extract shows the arbitrary proceedings of the court of James. Overbury, first committed without inquiry, and then released, because the queen has found out that she was mistaken!—

"Now for the favourite Sir Robert Carr: truly he was a wise, discreet gentleman; and as Sir Robert Cotton, the great antiquary, told me, he did very often send unto him for precedents, when as things

were to be done in the State which he doubted whether they were lawful and expedient, and therefore did desire to have the example of former times for his warrant. It is true, he did utterly dislike the bold carriage and importunity of the Scots; he knew that there was nothing to be gained by them, and he did but little esteem their clamorous complaints to the King: he did desire to ingratiate himself with the English, and of all others his special friend was Sir Thomas Overbury, a very witty gentleman, but truly very insolent, and one who did much abuse the family of the Howards. He was once before committed for a very short time. Upon this occasion, the Queen was looking out of her window into the garden, where Somerset and Overbury were walking; and when the Queen saw them, she said, 'There goes Somerset and his governor;' and a little after, Overbury did laugh. The Queen, conceiving that he had overheard her, thought that they had laughed at her; whereupon she complained, and Overbury was committed. But when it did appear unto the Queen that they did not hear her, and that their laughter did proceed from a jest which the King was pleased to use that day at dinner, then the Queen was well satisfied, and he was released."

There are other curious and amusing passages in these memoirs, but we must hasten to the correspondence contained in the second volume—giving, however, the following extract in vindication of Buckingham from the charge of having hastened the king's death, by causing plasters, made by one Dr. Remington, to be applied to the king's wrists:—

"Certainly there never lived a better natured man than Buckingham was; yet if it were fit for me to deliver mine own opinion, being the last man that did him homage in the time of his sickness, truly I think that King James every autumn did feed a little more than moderately upon fruits: he had his grapes, his nectarines, and other fruits in his own keeping; besides, we did see that he fed very plentifully on them from abroad. I remember that Mr. French of the Spicery, who sometimes did present him with the first strawberries, cherries, and other fruits, and kneeling to the King, had some speech to use to him,—that he did desire his majesty to accept them, and that he was sorry they were no better—with such like complimentary words; but the King never had the patience to hear him one word, but his hand was in the basket."

The second volume is occupied by the correspondence, most of which appears to be derived from unpublished MSS. The letters are nearly all written by persons connected with the political history of the times. The following deeply interesting letter of Sir Walter Raleigh is conclusive on the much-disputed point, whether he attempted self-destruction while in the Tower:—

"Sir Walter Raleigh to his Wife, after he had hurt himself in the Tower.

"Receive from thy unfortunate husband these his last lines, these the last words that ever thou shalt receive from him. That I can live to think never to see thee and my child more, I cannot. I have desired God and disputed with my reason, but nature and compassion hath the victory. That I can live to think how you are both left a spoil to my enemies, and that my name shall be a dishonour to my child, I cannot. I cannot endure the memory thereof: unfortunate woman, unfortunate child, comfort yourselves, trust God, and be contented with your poor estate; I would have bettered it if I had enjoyed a few years. Thou art a young woman, and forbear not to marry again; it is now nothing to me; thou art no more mine, nor I thine. To witness that thou didst love me once, take care that thou marry not to please sense, but to avoid poverty, and to preserve thy child. That thou didst also love me living, witness it to others; to my poor daughter, to whom I have given nothing; for his sake, who will be cruel to himself to preserve thee. Be charitable to her, and teach thy son to love her for his father's sake. For myself, I am left of all men, that have done good to many. All my good turns forgotten, all my errors revived and expounded to all extremity of ill; all my services, hazards, and expenses for my country, plantings, discoveries, fights, councils, and whatsoever else,

malice hath now covered over. I am now made an enemy and traitor by the word of an unworthy man ; he hath proclaimed me to be a partaker of his vain imaginations, notwithstanding the whole course of my life hath approved the contrary, as my death shall approve it. Woe, woe, woe be unto him by whose falsehood we are lost ! he hath separated us asunder ; he hath slain my honour, my fortune ; he hath robbed thee of thy husband, thy child of his father, and me of you both. Oh, God ! thou dost know my wrongs : know then, thou my wife and child ; know then thou, my Lord and King, that I ever thought them too honest to betray, and too good to conspire against. But my wife, forgive thou all as I do : live humble, for thou hast but a time also. God forgive my Lord Harry [Cobham], for he was my heavy enemy. And for my Lord Cecil, I thought he would never forsake me in extremity : I would not have done it him, God knows. But do not thou know it, for he must be master of thy child, and may have compassion of him. Be not dismayed that I died in despair of God's mercies ; strive not to dispute it ; but assure thyself that God hath not left me, nor Satan tempted me. Hope and despair live not together ; I know it is forbidden to destroy ourselves, but I trust it is forbidden in this sort, that we destroy not ourselves despairing of God's mercy. The mercy of God is immeasurable, the cogitations of men comprehend it not. In the Lord I have ever trusted, and I know that my Redeemer liveth : far is it from me to be tempted with Satan ; I am only tempted with sorrow, whose sharp teeth devour my heart. O God, that art goodness itself, thou canst not be but good to me !

of the countess to whom the letter is addressed. It was this Lady Lake whom James sapiently compared to the serpent that beguiled Eve, and also to Eve who beguiled her husband:—

"**MADAM,**—Now after all this business in which you have had too much glory, cast your eyes upon the 13th Psalm; there you shall find what God is —no place nor thought hid from him; he can look where men's judgments cannot look to, and his records must remain upon the file for ever. His lawyers will not receive bribes, nor be corrupted; these exhibits cannot be stolen in boxes. To conclude for this time, I wish my submission could make you an innocent woman, and wish you as white as a swan; but it must be your own submission unto God, and many prayers, and tears, and afflictions, which seeing you have not outwardly, examine your heart, and think on times past, and remember what I have written you heretofore. The same I do now again, for I yet nothing doubt, but that although the Lord Roos was sent away and is dead, yet truth lives, and God's glory will appear in his good time. And if you flatter yourself other, it will fail you; and this business will never have end till you and I meet in the presence of the King's majesty, which hath been often my humble suit, although I cannot yet obtain it; yet I hope, ere you and I part this world, I shall. If not, I will have that testimony as shall make all the world to see that I die God's servant. To whose justice I command myself.

"MARY LAKE."

" 9th November, 1620.
" To the Countess of Exeter."

The following letter, from Buckingham, shows how completely he was lord paramount at court: it is addressed to the king:—

“ DERE DAD AND GOSSOPE.—Watt Steward hath
bine with me this morning to tell me your Majesty
was well inclined to make Sir Francis Vaine an Erle
for him. I answered, that I could hardlie beleue
it, but if he would be contented that Sir Frances
Steward might share with him, I would be a suter
to your Majesty for them in that for the present, and
hereafter, as occasion would serue, for somthing else;
but with this condition, that he would perswade my
Lord Hatton to give fife or six thousand to be
another, which monie I tould him I desired to make
use of myself. Upon this he fell upon another sute
he hath had to your Majesty, of being a groume in
your bedchamber, of which he sayeth he hath had a
promis from you. I answered in this, he must give
me leaue absolutelie to think otherwise; whereupon
he asked me if it were trew, whether I would not be
contented with it. I tould him playnelie, as I oft-
times have before, I thought him not fit for it,
neither would I promis him anie assistance in it.
My reson I shall give your Majesty when I shall
haue the hapines to kis your hands. Thus much I
thought fit in the meane time to acquaint you with.
So I crave your blissing as

• Your most humble slave and doge,
"61

"STINIE.

"Euen as I was seleing of this, Kate and I received another present from you, for which wee give you our humble thanks. Your presents are so greate, wee can not eate them so fast as the [v] come."

A most humble slave and dog truly. The following is a characteristic letter from Prince Charles and Buckingham, after their arrival in Paris, on their way to Spain:—

my sake. For the rest, I commend me to them, and them to God. And the Lord knows my sorrow to part from thee and my poor child; but part I must by enemies and injuries, part with shame, and triumph of my detractors; and therefore be contented with this work of God, and forget me in all things but thine own honour, and the love of mine. I bless my poor child, and let him know his father was no traitor. Be bold of my innocence, for God, to whom I offer life and soul, knows it. And whosoever thou choose again after me, let him be but thy politique husband; but let my son be thy beloved, for he is part of me, and I live in him, and the difference is but in the number, and not in the kind. And the Lord for ever keep thee and them, and give thee comfort in both worlds!¹²

The following letter is a spirited remonstrance from one of the most ill-used lady, who fell under the displeasure of the king, through the machinations

Saturday, wee rest at Paris, though [there] be no great need of it; yet I had forf [all] by the way without anie haremme. Your sonnes horses stoumble as fast as any [man's:] but he is so much more stronger before then he [was] he should them vp by maine straught of ma[n]hood & cries still On, on. This day we [went,] he and I alone, to a perwickle mak[er,] where wee disiglised oure sculnes so arteficially that wee adventured to see the Kinge. [The] means how wee did compass it w[as] this. We [addressed] oure selues to the King's gouernour, Monsieur du Proes, and he courteouslie caried us where wee saw him oure fill. Then wee desirid Monsieur du Proes to make vs acquainted with his sonne, becaus wee would troublle the ould man no longer, which hee did; and then wee saw the Qweene mother at dinner. This evening his sonne hath promised vs to see the yonge Qweene, with her sister and little Mounseieur. I ame sure now you fere we shall be discouerid; but doe not fright your selfe, for I warrant you the contrarie; and, findeing this might bee done with saftie, we had a greate tickling to ad it to the historie of oure aduentures. To[morrow,] which will be Sunday, wee will be, God willing, vp so erlie, that wee make no question but to reach Orleans; and so euerie day after, wee meane to be gaineing [su]mthong till we reach Madride. I haue nothinge more to say, but to recommend my pour little wife and daughter to your care, [and] that you will bestow your blessing upon

"Your humble and obedient*

"Sone and seruant,"

"CHARLES."

"Your humble slave and doge,

"STEENIE."†

The young queen's sister was Henrietta Maria, afterwards Charles's wife. There are many letters addressed to Buckingham during his stay at Madrid; some from his wife are pleasing, from the homely but deep attachment they express, and from the little domestic details which she enters into. "Our pretty Moll," she tells him, "when she is set to her feet, and held by her sleeves, will not go sautly [softly], but stamps, and sets one foot afore another very fast, that I think she will run, before she can go"—"when the saraband is played, she will get her thumb and her finger together, offering to snap; and when she hears the tune of the clapping dance, my Lady Hubert taught the prince, she will clap both her hands together, and on her breast, and she can tell the tunes as well as any of us can"—and in this homely, but natural and motherly way the heiress of the Earl of Rutland, the wife of the king's favourite, gossips for more than a page. We have none of Buckingham's letters in reply, but from the deep attachment, and even admiration, which the wife's letters breathe, we infer creditably of the haughty favourite's conduct in domestic life.

We will conclude with a characteristic letter from Prince Charles:—how ominous is his hatred of the “lower house,” and his scorn of “seditious fellows”:—

“**STINIE.**—The lower house this day has been a little unruly, but I hope it will turn to the best, for before they rose they began to be ashamed of it; yet I could wish that the King would send down a commission here, (that if need were,) such seditious fellows might be made an example to others by Monday next, and till then I would let them alone; it will be seen whether they mean to do good or to persist in their follies, so that the King needs to be patient but a little while. I have spoken with so many of the council as the King trusts most, and they [are] all of this mind; only the sending of authority to set seditionist fellows fast is of my adding. I defy thee in being more mine than I am

"Thy constant loving friend,

“CHARLES P.”

" Friday, 3d November, 1621."

* "These three lines in the Prince's hand."
 † "Orig. Hol. Tan. lxxiii. 229. The margin and other parts of this letter are gone. The words in brackets are supplied by conjecture."

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Practical Treatise on Bridge Building and on the Equilibrium of Vaults and Arches, by E. Cresy, Architect, folio.—This is the first number of a work, which, according to the prospectus, is to consist of two volumes. The theory of the science will, it is stated, be treated so as to condense all the valuable materials of the most celebrated writers; and the practice will be illustrated by those constructions whose stability time has proved, and the design of which, as works of art, has been generally admired. Until the text is published, it is impossible to do more than state, that this first number consists of nineteen plates, in which are given details of London and Bow bridges, that of St. Maciue in France, as also a skew iron bridge at Manchester, and some sections of Gothic buildings, illustrative of the principles upon which those hardy masons constructed their magic edifices, the wonder of succeeding ages. The whole are drawn and engraved with great care and ability.

Natural History of the Quadrupeds of Paraguay, translated from Azara, by W. P. Hunter.—This translation of the writings of the Spanish naturalist, Don Felix de Azara, justly celebrated for the faithfulness and originality displayed in his descriptions of the South American Mammalia, published nearly half a century ago, will be acceptable to English zoologists. We can speak favourably of the correctness of the translation, and we are pleased with the spirit of the remarks introduced by the translator himself. The bulk of the volume is increased by extracts from more recent publications, bearing on the history of the animals treated of, and which are appended in the form of notes to the original text. As this first volume only is now published, we may express a hope that Mr. Hunter will complete the translation of the remaining portion of Azara's work.

Hints to Mechanics, by T. Claxton.—A narrative written with unaffected simplicity, and recording the early struggles of a man in humble life—showing

the power which all possess of self-education, the advantages of mutual instruction, and the good which results from a habit of self-improvement. The work is especially addressed to mechanics, but may be read with interest and profit by all.

The Year-Book of Facts, 1839, by the Editor of the 'Arcana of Science'.—The work is intended to present a condensed record of scientific discovery during the past year, and is ably and honestly compiled.

Anthon's Caesar.—This edition of a popular classic is well calculated to support Professor Anthon's character, as a judicious commentator.

Labour's Wrongs and Labour's Remedy.—This is a recommendation of the co-operative system of society; it contains nothing that has not been often and better said by Mr. Owen.

Taylor's Life of Clarkson.—Mr. Taylor, in this slight work, vindicates Clarkson from the injudicious attacks made on him by the Messrs. Wilberforce, in the Life of their father. We lamented, from the first, to see angry feelings mixing themselves up with a question respecting the relative merits of men, whose claims to the gratitude of the injured Africans are so unquestionable; and we abstain from all comment, lest by chance we might aid in the continuance of so unhappy a controversy.

Langley's Introduction to Anglo-Saxon.—Ælfric's homily on the birth-day of St. Gregory, is published in this little volume with a copious glossary, as an easy and profitable exercise for students of the Anglo-Saxon language.

Progressive Education, by Madame Necker de Saussure.—There are many valuable hints in this volume, by which parents and teachers may profit, but we by no means think that the entire system recommended would be advantageous, or is even practicable.

Letters on Aristocracy, &c. by W. T. W.—Amid much visionary speculation, these letters contain

many important truths, which, though not wholly new, have the appearance of novelty from the ingenious process of analysis employed in their development. They originally appeared in the *Sheffield Iris*.

Nevile's Defence of Paley.—A very able reply to the objections which Professors Sedgwick and Whewell have urged against Paley's theory of morals.

Travels of Minna and Godfrey. The Rhine.—This little work is written in an easy pleasing style; the scenery of the Rhine is described with considerable graphic power, and the historical anecdotes interspersed are well calculated to fix the attention of youthful readers.

List of New Books.—Goodman's *Court of King James the First*, 2 vols. 8vo. 30s.—Cooke's *Insolvent Practice*, 2nd edit. 8vo. bds. 16s.—History of St. Elizabeth, of Hungary, translated by A. L. Phillips, Esq. Vol. I. royal 4to. bds. 21s., with plates 32s.—Roger's *Vegetable Cultivator*, 12mo. cl. 7s.—Adrian, and other Poems, by Henry Cook, 8vo. cl. 7s. 6d.—Taylor's *Student's Manual of Ancient History*, 2nd edit. 8vo. cl. 10s. 6d.—Bonnechose's *History of France*, 12mo. cl. 7s. 6d.—Frost's *History of the United States*, 12mo. cl. 5s. 6d.—Williams's *Missionary Voyage*, new edit. post 8vo. cl. 8s.—Lord Glenelg's *Despatches*, vols. cl. 5s.—Geraldine, a Tale of Conscience, Vol. II. 12mo. bds. 6s., Vols. I. & II. new edit. 12mo. bds. 12s.—Bishop Andrews's *Private Devotions*, translated by the Rev. Peter Hall, new edit. 8vo. cl. 5s.—Shaw's *Specimens of Elizabethan Architecture*, complete, medium 4to. 1f. bd. 3s. 3s., imperial 4to. bd. 6s.—Memoir and Select Remains of William Nevins, D.D., with Introductory Essay, by the Rev. Octavius Winslow, 8vo. cl. 6s.—Rev. H. Blunt's *Lectures on the History of Elisha*, 12mo. cl. 5s. 6d.—Orger's *Six Lectures on the History and Character of Lot*, 6c. cl. 3s.—The *Botanist*, Vol. II. 4to. cl. large, 32s., small, 20s.—Christian Family Library, *Essays on Romanism*, &c. cl. 5s.—The Church's Voice of Instruction, by Dr. Krumacher, 12mo. cl. 3s. 6d.—The Works of the Rev. Andrew Gray, with Preface by the Rev. Edward Tweedie, 8vo. bds. 9s.

[ADVERTISEMENT.]—Now ready, price 6s. 6d., DR. TAYLOR'S *New Work, ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE BIBLE, and CONFIRMATIONS OF SACRED HISTORY*, from the EGYPTIAN MONUMENTS. The volume is illustrated by Ninety-three Engravings. C. Tilt, London.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL for APRIL, kept by the Assistant Secretary, at the Apartments of the Royal Society, BY ORDER OF THE PRESIDENT AND COUNCIL.

APRIL.	9 o'clock, A.M.				3 o'clock, P.M.				Dew Point at 9 A.M. Diff. of Wet and Dry Bulb Therm.	External Thermometers.	Rain in inches, Head off at 9 A.M.	Direction of the Wind at 9 A.M.	REMARKS.					
	Barometer uncorrected.		Barometer uncorrected.		Att. Therm.	Att. Therm.												
	Flint Glass.	Crown Glass.	Flint Glass.	Crown Glass.														
M 1	29.586	29.560	44.3	29.570	29.564	45.4	38	02.8	41.7	42.8	40.7	46.3	.116	E				
T 2	29.766	29.758	42.8	29.836	29.830	42.7	36	01.6	38.8	38.3	38.9	41.0	.088	NE				
W 3	29.896	29.888	40.3	29.886	29.878	40.0	43	02.6	35.9	35.6	35.6	36.6		NE				
T 4	29.986	29.978	38.3	29.980	29.972	39.2	30	02.9	35.5	37.2	33.9	36.0		NNE				
F 5	29.802	29.796	38.2	29.838	29.832	38.4	31	01.1	33.5	36.7	34.0	34.3	.061	NE				
S 6	30.158	30.152	45.9	30.230	30.222	41.5	33	04.2	40.2	40.3	34.0	40.7	.340	NNE				
○ 7	30.398	30.392	41.9	30.368	30.360	41.2	29	04.2	38.6	42.8	30.5	39.3		NNE				
M 8	30.320	30.312	45.3	30.298	30.290	41.3	32	05.4	40.3	38.4	34.8	41.4		NNE				
T 9	30.352	30.346	40.2	30.348	30.340	41.2	32	03.2	38.8	41.7	35.0	39.7	.027	NNE				
W 10	30.444	30.438	40.8	30.430	30.422	43.3	33	03.4	42.4	47.8	37.3	43.2		NNE				
T 11	30.518	30.510	46.9	30.444	30.436	43.6	33	04.1	41.4	50.4	33.2	42.7		NE				
F 12	30.282	30.274	42.8	30.236	30.230	45.3	37	03.2	42.6	47.2	37.2	43.3		NNE				
○ S 13	30.272	30.264	45.0	30.250	30.242	46.9	38	04.6	44.8	47.2	41.3	45.3		N				
○ 14	30.232	30.224	45.7	30.202	30.196	48.0	39	03.8	45.7	51.8	43.7	46.4		W				
M 15	30.138	30.138	47.5	30.056	30.050	49.6	39	04.9	48.5	51.3	45.2	49.3		SW				
T 16	29.792	29.786	48.8	29.658	29.650	51.3	37	06.7	50.2	55.9	44.6	50.8		S				
W 17	29.436	29.430	53.3	29.492	29.486	52.2	42	05.8	48.4	48.5	45.5	49.4		W var.				
T 18	29.450	29.444	48.3	29.572	29.564	51.9	42	03.0	47.2	54.3	40.9	47.6	.205	S				
F 19	29.662	29.654	55.9	29.794	29.786	54.6	45	05.0	51.4	56.5	40.7	52.0	.180	W				
S 20	30.082	30.076	58.7	30.082	30.074	53.2	42	06.2	49.8	51.8	40.8	50.7		W				
○ 21	30.260	30.252	53.5	30.226	30.222	53.0	40	05.9	48.7	54.5	41.3	49.5	.033	W NW				
M 22	30.263	30.260	50.6	30.220	30.212	53.2	43	05.1	52.3	57.7	42.7	53.5		SE				
T 23	29.984	29.976	52.0	29.938	29.932	53.2	46	02.9	51.3	53.6	47.4	51.8	.155	S				
W 24	30.078	30.070	51.3	30.056	30.048	52.7	41	04.7	45.8	51.3	42.3	46.4	.172	NW				
T 25	30.074	30.068	58.3	30.012	30.004	51.5	38	05.3	44.6	52.2	36.9	46.0		NW				
F 26	30.148	30.142	48.6	30.144	30.136	50.2	37	04.6	44.3	49.7	39.2	50.4		NNE				
S 27	30.238	30.230	49.0	30.210	30.202	51.8	43	04.6	48.7	56.3	43.6	49.3		SE				
○ 28	30.340	30.334	56.6	30.296	30.290	53.0	42	05.2	47.8	57.0	42.0	49.4		NNW				
M 29	30.250	30.242	52.2	30.162	30.154	53.9	43	04.5	48.8	62.8	42.6	49.9		E				
T 30	30.148	30.142	61.4	30.076	30.068	56.2	45	06.5	57.3	63.2	46.7	58.7		E				
MEAN.	30.078	30.071	48.1	30.064	30.056	48.0	37.9	04.3	44.8	49.2	39.7	46.0	1.377	Sum.				
														Mean Barometer corrected				
														9 A.M. 3 P.M. 30.030 .. 30.016 F. 30.022 .. 30.007				

Note.—The daily observations are recorded just as they are read off from the scale, without the application of any correction whatever.

On passing through Smithfield on Friday evening, the 26th of April last, between the hours of six and seven o'clock, my attention was arrested by a black spot, of the size of a crown piece, nearly in the centre of the sun, and which I watched with the naked eye for upwards of twenty minutes. There being a great quantity of vapour in the atmosphere at the time, permitted the eye to look at it with impunity.—J. D. R.

TO MY EGERIA.

O placid Nun !
That lov'st, immured within thy sparry cell,
Whose moist roof makes the crystal floor a well,
To count the drip-falls one by one
Thy echoing beads, and bell
Which rings thee to perpetual orison,
And keeps thy grotto awful with the knell.

Thy breathless prayer
Comes not from thy still lips, but stedfast eyes
In far-world thought fix on the distant skies ;
Eve's solemn winds hymn for thee there,
Sweet Dawn thy matin sighs :
With tranquil breast that heaves not her soft hair
On simple mosses so much beauty lies !

Greeting thee dim,
The pale Moon lights with transient smile thy cave,
And Purity oft comes to drink thy wave ;
Here the shy Woodmaid, bending slim,
Puts off her weed, to lave ;
Titania and her elfin mein trim
Swarm here, cool shelter from the sun to crave.

Hither betimes,
With leaf-light step upon the frosted dews,
Wanders that Queen of Song the poet woos,
Like Nymph to Nun, in Celtic climes
Turned Sylph from sylvan Muse ;
O, if thy Sister hear, into his rhymes
Thou, with her spirit wild, thy calm infuse !

G. D.

THE ARCTIC LAND EXPEDITION.

Fort Confidence, Great Bear Lake,
Sept. 15, 1838.

Honourable Sirs.—It now becomes our duty to report the incomplete success of the expedition to the eastward this summer, in consequence of the extraordinary duration of the ice. Much, however, has been done to prepare the way for another attempt next year ; and our hopes, instead of being depressed, are elevated by the knowledge so painfully acquired this season.

On the 6th of June our boats were conveyed on the ice to the mouth of Dease's River (then just open), the ascent of which was commenced the following day. With some assistance from Indians, we reached the portage, leading to the "dismal lakes" (discovered by Mr. Simpson last winter), and carried the boats across it without accident. The ice on these lakes was still perfectly solid ; and we were provided with iron-shod sledges for the passage. On these we fixed the boats, and the wind being fair, hoisted sail, which greatly aided the crews on the hauling ropes. In this manner these frozen reservoirs, which are fully thirty miles long, were passed in two days, and we reached our provision station at "Kendall" river on the 10th. There we had the satisfaction to find the two men (left there by Mr. S. in April) well, and their Hare Indian hunters successful in the chase. Two of these active fellows consented at once to accompany us along the coast, and proved not only good voyagers, but during our frequent detentions among the ice, killed so many reindeer as enabled us to save nearly half our summer stock of provisions. Next day (June 20) we proceeded to the Coppermine River, which we found still fast. It gave way on the 22nd, and we descended all its "terrible" rapids at full flood, while the ice was still driving. Below the Bloody Fall the river did not clear out till the 26th ; and on the 1st of July we pitched our tents at the ocean. Two or three Esquimaux families were seen there, but they took the alarm and fled over the ice towards some distant islands. Here, and on various parts of the coast, a fine collection of plants was made by Mr. Dease.

We remained imprisoned in the mouth of the Coppermine, awaiting the opening of the ice, till the 17th of July. Our subsequent progress along the coast was one incessant, we may say, desperate struggle with the same cold, obdurate foe, in which the boats sustained serious damage, several planks being more than half cut through. At various points we saw *cachés* of the Esquimaux placed upon lofty rocks, out of reach of beasts of prey ; but we did not fall in with any of the owners, who seemed to have all gone inland to kill reindeer, after their winter seal-hunt among the islands. Fragments of Dr.

Richardson's mahogany boats were found widely scattered, and many articles left by his party at the Bloody Fall were carefully preserved in the native keepings. On the 29th of July we at length succeeded in doubling Cape Barrow. The northern part of Bathurst's Inlet was still covered with a solid sheet of ice, and instead of being able to cross over direct to Point Turnagain, we were compelled to make a circuit of 140 miles by Arctic Sound and Barry's Islands. On the eastermost of that group, Mr. Simpson discovered, at the base of a crumbling cliff, several pieces of pure copper ore, and the adjacent islands had also the appearance of being strongly impregnated with that metal. A series of specimens of all the principal rocks along the coast was preserved. In order to attain Cape Flinders, we had to perform a portage across an island, and several over the ice. On the 9th of August we doubled that cape, and in a little bay, three miles to the southward of Franklin's farthest encampment in 1821, our boats were finally arrested by the ice, which encompassed them for 22 days : so different was the season of 1838 from that of 1821, when Franklin found a perfectly open sea there on the 16th of August. In June, the early part of July, and the middle of August, we had frequent storms accompanied by snow and frost ; but during the greater part of July and the beginning of August calms prevailed, which, together with the severity of the preceding winter, we consider as the cause of the tardy disruption of the ice this season.

On the 20th of August we were obliged to relinquish our hopes of advancing further with the boats. That our efforts might not, however, prove wholly fruitless, Mr. Simpson offered to conduct an exploring party on foot for ten days. It was at the same time arranged between us that in the event of any favourable movement taking place in the ice, Mr. Dease should advance with one boat. Signals were agreed upon to prevent our missing each other on the way ; and should we unfortunately do so, the last day of August was fixed for the rendezvous of both parties at Boat Harbour. That unlucky spot is situated in lat. 68° 16' 26" N., long. 109° 20' 45" W. ; variation of the compass 46° E. Mr. Simpson's narrative of his journey and discoveries to the eastward is annexed.

On the 31st of August we cut our way out of our icy harbour—the grave of one year's hopes ; and having the benefit of fair winds, crossed Bathurst's Inlet among Wilmot Islands, and safely re-entered the Coppermine River on the 3rd of September. The following day we proceeded to the Bloody Fall, and there secreted our superfluous provisions. The ascent of the Coppermine (hitherto deemed impracticable) to near the junction of Kendall River was accomplished on the fifth day. We deposited the boats in a woody bluff, where they can be conveniently repaired next spring ; then taking our bundles on our backs, we traversed the barren grounds, and returned to winter quarters yesterday.

Here we had the satisfaction to find everything in good order, the buildings rendered more comfortable, and some provisions collected. Our return so much earlier than we ourselves expected on leaving Point Turnagain has enabled us to commence the fall fisheries in good time ; and though our stock of ammunition and other necessities for the Indians is reduced very low, want no longer stares us in the face, as it did for several months after our arrival here last year. We are most happy to add, that the natives have experienced neither famine nor sickness this season, the only death within our knowledge being that of a blind old man.

September 29.

We have the honour to acknowledge the receipt this afternoon of Governor Simpson's dispatch of February 28th. As things have fallen out this season, it is fortunate that no party was sent down the Great Fish River to meet us : and from the experience we now possess of the coast to the eastward, we are of opinion that a retreat by the Coppermine may be effected, when the entire ascent of the Great Fish River would be no longer practicable. We feel deeply indebted for the confidence reposed in us, and the ample authority granted by the Governor's circular and previous letters to draw upon the resources of all parts of the country. This power we have hitherto used in extreme moderation, and we are glad to say that we are not reduced to the necessity of exercising it any further. One of our men leaves

us in consequence of a bad complaint, and has been replaced by a servant from Mackenzie's River. To C. J. McPherson, the gentleman in charge of that district, we are indebted for valuable assistance in many ways ; likewise to C. F. McLeod, of Otabasca. Between them our order of last winter for an additional supply of pemmican, dogs, sledge-wood, leather, ammunition, guns, axes, and tobacco, has been completed, while the prompt and kind attention of chief trader Ross at Norway House, has fulfilled the private orders of our people, for a part of which we now send to Great Slave Lake. By the same conveyance we discharge our Chipewyan hunters, as we are unable to provide them any longer with clothing.

Since writing the foregoing, we have been obliged to condemn one of our two sea boats. In its stead, we shall transport an inland batteau, of a rather superior construction, built by Ritch, at Fort Chipewyan, two years ago, to the Coppermine next June. By the route followed this year ; making up the additional hands required to navigate such a craft with Hare Indian hunters. And to convey the expedition from this dreary abode at the close of our enterprise, we shall again require the aid of a boat from Mackenzie's River. With the utmost respect, we have the honour to remain, hon. sirs, your most obedient humble servants,

(Signed) PETER W. DEASE,
THOMAS SIMPSON.

To the Governor, Deputy-Governor, and
Committee of the Honourable Hudson's Bay
Company, London.

Narrative of the Journey, on Foot, to the Eastward.

On the 20th of August, the day appointed for the return of former expeditions from those desolate shores, I left our boats still hopelessly beset with ice, to perform ten days' journey of discovery on foot to the eastward. My companions were five servants and two Indians. We carried a wooden-framed canvas canoe, and nearly the same other baggage as on the journey to Point Barrow last year, with the addition of a tent for the nightly shelter of the whole party on a coast almost destitute of fuel. Each man's load at starting weighed about half a cwt., and our daily progress averaged twenty geographical miles. About the middle of the first day's journey we passed the farthest point to which Sir John Franklin and his officers walked in 1821. Beyond that the coast presented its N.E. trending to our encampment of the same night, situated on the pitch of a low cape, which I have named Cape Franklin. From west to north-east a new land, or crowded chain of islands of great extent, —in many places high and covered with snow,—stretched along at the distance of thirty miles, and led to the apprehension that we were entering a deep sound or inlet. The main land now turned off to E.N.E., which continued to be nearly its general bearing for the three following days. It is flat in its outline, our path leading alternately over soft sand, sharp stones, and swampy ground. At the distance of from one to two miles the coast is skirted by a range of low stony hills, partially clothed with dull verdure, which send down to the sea numberless brooks and small streams : none of the latter at that season reached above our waists, though the deep and rugged channels of many of them showed that in the spring they must be powerful torrents. Two leagues inland, hill (which I have named Mount George, after Governor Simpson) rises to the height of 600 feet, and forms a conspicuous object for a day's journey on either side. The ice all along lay immoveably aground upon the shallow bench, and extended in every direction as far as the eye could reach. The great northern land still stretched out before us, and kept alive doubts of our being engaged in exploring an immense bay, which even the increase in the tides, the quantity of seaweed and shells, and the discovery of the remains of a large whale and of a Polar bear could not altogether dispel. These doubts seemed almost converted into certainty as we drew near, on the fourth evening, an elevated cape, and saw land apparently all around. With feelings of bitter disappointment I ascended the height, from whose summit a splendid and most unlooked for view suddenly burst upon me. The ocean, as it transformed by enchantment, rolled its free waves beneath and beyond the reach of vision to the eastward, islands of various shape and size overspread its surface, and the northern land terminated in a

bold and miles distant away to markable obstructions ward I have youthful Pelly, af To the attached brother, sharer of there was by us in its character easy, and secure him. Next miles, with rocks, in compass more and some miles wet most gled with hour, which turned a (like the dipping thirty miles in time and two the fath ground. I besides of our ment with the boats we course varieties here re five days so mod nomic from t had co Close of three a little of a lat Cape b did we people. The to the of a pi point, with honou Britai our p might cellecti netic grew advanc before south magnific of wh those or V have miles makin journ timen value the s the open was pen estima

bold and lofty cape, bearing north-east at least forty miles distant, while the coast of the continent trended away to the south-east. I stood, in fact, on a remarkable headland at the eastern entrance of an ice obstructed strait. The extensive land to the northward I have called "Victoria Land," in honour of our youthful sovereign; and its eastern extremity Cape Pelly, after the governor of the honorable company. To the promontory, where we encamped, I have attached the name of Cape Alexander, after an only brother, who would give his right hand to be the sharer of my journeys. The rise and fall of the tide there was about three feet, being the greatest observed by us in the Arctic Seas. The coast here changes its character, the water becomes deep, the approach easy, and I have little doubt that the islands contain secure harbours for shipping.

Next morning, at the distance of eight or nine miles, we crossed another high cape, formed of trap rocks, in lat. $68^{\circ} 52' 18.5''$ N., the variation of the compass being $63^{\circ} 3' E.$ The travelling had become more and more toilsome; our road now passing over some miles of round loose stones, and then through wet mossy tracks, sown with large boulders, and tangled with dwarf willows. At our usual camping hour, we opened a large bay studded with islands, which ran in for five miles to the S.S.W., and then turned off in a bold sweep of rounded granitic hills (like those near Melville Sound and Cape Barrow,) dipping to the right in the E.S.E., at the distance of thirty miles. To walk round even the portion of the bay in view would have consumed three days: the time allotted for outgoing was already expired, and two or three of my men were severely lame from the fatigue of their burdens, the inequalities of the ground, and the constant immersion in icy cold water. I besides cherished hopes, that by making the best of our way back, we might, agreeably to my arrangement with Mr. Dease, meet him bringing on one of the boats, in which case, with an open sea before us, we could have still considerably extended our discoveries before the commencement of winter. I may here remark, that we were singularly fortunate in the five days of our outward journey, the weather being so moderate and clear, that I daily obtained astronomical observations, whereas before our departure from the boats, and during our return to them, we had continued storms, with frost, snow, rain, and fog. Close to our farthest encampment, appeared the site of three Esquimaux tents of the preceding year, with a little stone chimney apart. We passed the remains of a larger camp, and several human skeletons, near Cape Franklin, but nowhere throughout the journey did we find recent traces of that few and scattered people.

The morning of the 25th of August was devoted to the determination of our position, and the erection of a pillar of stones on the most elevated part of the point. After which, I took possession of the country, with the usual ceremonial, in the name of the honourable company, and for the Queen of Great Britain. In the pillar I deposited a brief sketch of our proceedings, for the information of whoever might find it. Its situation is in lat. $68^{\circ} 43' 39''$ N., long. (reduced by Captain Smith's watch from excellent lunars at the boats,) $106^{\circ} 3' W.$, the magnetic variation being $60^{\circ} 38' 23'' E.$ The compass grew sluggish and uncertain in its movements as we advanced eastward, and frequently had to be shaken before it would traverse at all. Two miles to the southward of our encampment, a rapid river of some magnitude discharges itself into the bay, the shores of which seemed more broken and indented than those along which we had travelled. Independently of Victoria Land, and an archipelago of islands, I have had the satisfaction of tracing fully one hundred miles of coast, and of seeing thirty miles further, making in all, after deducting Franklin's half-day's journey already mentioned, about 120 miles of continental discovery. This is in itself important, yet I value it chiefly for having disclosed an open sea to the eastward, and for suggesting a new route along the southern shores of Victoria Land, by which that open sea may be attained, while the mainland (as was the case this season) is yet environed by an impenetrable barrier of ice. Whether the open sea to the eastward may lead to Ross's Pillar, or to the estuary of Back's Great Fish River, it is hard to conjecture, though the trending of the most distant

land in view should rather seem to favour the latter conclusion.

The same evening, on our return, we met the ice at Trap Cape, driving rapidly to the eastward. As we proceeded, the shores continued inaccessible, but open water was now everywhere visible in the offing. Several bands of buck reindeer were migrating to the southward along the hills; two which we shot were in far superior condition to those in Bathurst's Inlet and near the Coppermine. A few musk oxen were also seen; and numerous flocks of white geese (*Anser hyperboreus*), generally officered by large grey ones (*A. canadensis*), were assembled on the marshes, and taking their aerial flights to more genial climates. At dusk, on the 29th of August, our tenth day, we regained the boats, and found them still inclosed in the ice, which the north and westerly gales seemed to have accumulated from far and near, towards Point Turnagain.

(Signed) THOMAS SIMPSON.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

We learn from a Cape paper that Captain W. C. Harris, whose sprightly account of an excursion in the South African wilderness was not long since reviewed by us, has proposed to the Geographical Society of Bombay, to conduct an expedition of discovery into the interior of the African continent. The gallant sportsman thus explains his motives and his views:—"I beg particularly to solicit the attention of the Society to the fact of my having penetrated to a spot which was described as being not more than six weeks or two months journey from that great inland lake, the actual existence of which between the equator and tropic of Capricorn, was first satisfactorily established by Dr. Smith's expedition in 1835—and that, every circumstance conspiring to favour the successful continuation of my journey, I was only deterred from making the attempt to reach that remarkable point in the desert, towards which geographical attention has been so long directed, by the fear of exceeding the limits of my furlough from India. Feeling an irresistible desire to extend my acquaintance with Africa, and still further to assist in filling up the chasm which is yet to be supplied in her geography, and having already upon my private means, without any previous experience in African travelling, and at a most unfavourable conjuncture, safely accomplished a long and perilous journey among savage tribes, I now venture to make, through the Bombay Society, an offer of my services to the Royal Geographical Society; and being fully confident that, unrestricted by time, with a due regard to the seasons, aided by the knowledge I have already acquired, I should experience little difficulty in penetrating to the lake in question, I beg to volunteer to make the attempt, and earnestly to solicit the support and recommendation of the Society here, to which I have the honour to belong, in favour of the object which I have in view. Coming from the Royal Geographical Society, there can, I think, be but little doubt, that an application for my services for such a purpose, would be met by the honourable Court of Directors with their accustomed and well-known liberality as a public body, and with a spirit not likely to prove injurious to my private interests." Captain Harris then proceeds to say that he is ready to start the moment permission is obtained; and he selects as his companion, an officer "combining the inclination and necessary qualifications." Among the latter, we doubt not, is included a deadly aim with the rifle. As to the proposal itself, we regret to say that we cannot give it our approbation. We have risen too recently from the perusal of Captain Harris's volume, to expect from his habits of thought and action any considerable accession to our geographical knowledge. Sincerely believing that discovery in Africa is, at the present moment, highly important in a commercial and political, as well as in a religious point of view, we hope to see it prosecuted, not, as hitherto, by blind and random efforts, but with calmly deliberated plans and well-selected individuals. A very moderate fund, if constantly and judiciously applied, would, we feel convinced, soon work very important consequences; but in order that this system of progressive discovery may be brought into operation, it will be particularly desirable, in the first instance, to

avoid the chance of dearly-bought failures; and we need hardly add, that the results of expeditions despatched from the Cape Colony, are sure to be dearly bought. Of the lake which appears to be the special object of Captain Harris's proposed expedition, we question whether there be really such a lake in the interior. According to the first account which we received of the so-called lake (see *Athen.* 1835, p. 338), it is situated two days' journey from the country of the Bamangwatu, and therefore is about 22° south lat. But Dr. Smith says of it, "the statements made in regard to the lake were vague and unsatisfactory on every point, except as to its existence. On the subject of the direction and distance, little could be ascertained with certainty. Some stated it bore north-west from us, others north-east; some that they could reach it in three weeks, others in three months." We have no doubt that the natives who described it as being towards the north-east on that occasion, were nearest to the truth, and that the lake in question is on the sea-coast, opposite to the Bazaruto islands. We have several cogent reasons for embracing this opinion; nor can we find in the narrative of Captain Harris anything calculated to shake it, or indeed anything more than those vague indications of the existence of a lake, which he appears to have borrowed from Dr. Smith.

At Messrs. Christie & Manson's was sold last Saturday the refuse of half-a-dozen picture-rooms, and of Mr. Aders's once celebrated collection. We only mention this sale, on account of two or three antiquities in the latter, about which some of our continental readers at least may feel an interest. It will be recollectcd, that the whole Aders gallery went to auction four years since, and the gems found purchasers—two "unvalued jewels" falling at the price of paste into the hands of our poet, Rogers. Among the remnant was a "Virgin and Child, with St. Joseph gathering Fruit," on panel, $18\frac{1}{2}$ inches high, by $10\frac{1}{2}$ wide; inscribed to *Hemlinck*: our German friends will recognize it from this brief description. It has now been sold (to Nieuwenhuys) for 41 guineas—an increase of 8 since Foster's sale, but still beneath its value, as, though not a genuine *Hemlinck*, nothing nearer such a thing can be had at present. The little "Deposition," with a Saint on each side in compartments, and the similar "Crucifixion," given respectively to *Antonello di Messina* and *Venusti*, brought $12\frac{1}{2}$ and $21\frac{1}{2}$ guineas. A "Holy Family and Angels in a landscape," which one critic, *Passavant*, praises as the work of *Margaretha Van Eyck*, and another critic, *Wagen*—more with our concurrence—reduces to a feeble imitation of the school, 40 guineas. Finally, the "Adoration of the Lamb" brought 95: this, although a very weak and insipid reflection of the wondrous Ghent picture by *Hubert* and *John Van Eyck*, is valuable, from exhibiting the whole composition, now that the original, as well as Michael Coxie's fac-simile, has been deposited piecemeal, like a Sainted corpse, in different and distant places.

At the rooms, 46, Great Marlborough Street, has appeared one of those pictorial meteors which visit us every year soon after the vernal equinox. It is a work of some merit, and great pretensions, claiming to be no less than the very finest *Rembrandt* in England. We can offer but faint congratulations on this so-called accession to our artistic treasures: our opinion is altogether against its being by *Rembrandt*, though much in favour of its being an excellent imitation. One principle we may venture to set forth for the assistance of public judgment, not only as respects this picture, but all like it: *Rembrandt*'s second style is so bold, so decisive, especially in works of large dimensions, as to be recognizable at once, and without a single doubt, by any amateur of the least experience. With such a scope of canvas, in such a style, as the "Sacrifice of Isaac" displays, *Rembrandt*'s powerful genius would have flashed out from these masses of colour like a noon-day sun, which bursts through the clouds of a storm. All eyes would be turned upon the phenomenon, to acknowledge its sublimity. This principle we think fatal to the present picture: a *fact* not much less so is, that the "Sacrifice of Isaac" was at Houghton, and went thence to St. Petersburg. We cannot even admit this one to be a first thought: *Rembrandt* could never have painted that feeble background and mean patriarchal head, nor failed so egregiously in the chiaroscuro of the Angel. Nevertheless, as we said, the

vident between the latter and the former. Another daughter -backed -a tale. A good part of the sin- cernent to also of the times of posture sky and of the *ayana*; in the it is a ism of ship of a place asorted its vic- en pot- tarian an's; it the wor- prohibi- forward *Purana*; and to an pens of which a silk- on the described Frazer, perior usually at pre- having of that could be market be of Resin, r. Ba- own in painted insie, described in Gum. a and yrrh. resin, in the mixed count- was of com- ple in attri- stongst it were, were

upper, Cape. The visit to, in his clear con- with this

task, he soon found that the lapse of eighty-five years had obliterated all local evidence of the French astronomer's operations; and the fact that he was there at all, was only kept alive by the inquiries of Captain Everest in 1821. Having carefully perused the various Memoirs of Lacaille relative to his Cape operations, as well as his printed Journal, Mr. Maclear applied to his Excellency Sir Benjamin D'Urban, the governor of the colony, for leave to inspect the official documents. This was readily granted; but although several letters and notices interesting to the astronomer were brought to light, nothing was discovered tending to promote the object he had immediately in view, which was to identify the spot on which Lacaille's Observatory had stood. Lacaille states, that he resided in the house of a person of the name of Bestbier, on whose premises the Observatory was built. And Mr. Maclear having at length obtained undeniable proof of the identity of Bestbier's house with that now occupied by Mrs. De Witt, the search for the position of the Observatory was brought within narrow limits, for Lacaille states that it was in the court of the house where he lived. The author accordingly proceeded to take measures for connecting the house with the Royal Observatory by triangulation, resolving to spare no pains in the execution of this part of his operations, inasmuch as he entertained a hope that he should thereby be able to ascertain whether Lacaille's plumb-line had been affected by the attraction of Table Mountain. In the meantime, Mr. Maclear had communicated his views and proceedings to Captain Beaufort and Mr. Airy the Astronomer Royal; the latter of whom immediately wrote to the Secretary of the Admiralty, requesting their Lordships' permission to send out Bradley's zenith-sector, in order that Mr. Maclear might be enabled to verify at once the amplitude of Lacaille's arc. This was precisely what he himself had wished to accomplish, provided he could identify the northern station. The northern station, at Klyp-Fonteyn, cannot be so readily traced as that in Cape Town. On visiting the place, accompanied by Lieut. Williams of the Royal Engineers, Mr. Maclear found that a close investigation into the history of the proprietors, in connexion with the buildings and ruins, would be necessary; for, on looking at the old foundation described by Captain Everest, as the platform of the granary on which Lacaille had observed, and comparing its dimensions with Lacaille's statement, and its position and distance from the old house, as unlike the usual arrangements of the Dutch farmers, he perceived strong reasons for doubting its identity with the granary of Lacaille. It therefore became necessary, in order to arrive at the facts, to inquire into the evidence on which Captain Everest had fixed on the spot; and to examine the place, by turning up the soil. Mr. Maclear applied to his Excellency General Napier, and obtained a corporal of sappers and privates from the artillery corps, who set to work and soon exposed to view three distinct ruins; and the question arose, whether any one of these was the granary of Lacaille? After a minute and careful comparison of all the circumstances, Mr. Maclear came to the conclusion that the platform of Captain Everest was the dwelling-house, and that the granary was on the foundation he had last exposed. This conclusion was subsequently confirmed by an entry discovered among the colonial records. The meridional distance of the granary from the platform of Captain Everest is 210 feet, or rather more than 2'. The signals at the other two angles of the triangle, namely, Riebeck's castle and Capo Berg, were easily recognized. The charcoal remnant of the signal-fire still remains on Riebeck's castle; whereby the party were enabled to enjoy the sight of one undeniable mark of the work of Lacaille. The author next proceeds to describe the operations for connecting Lacaille's southern station with the Royal Observatory. With these he included another position: "one which," he remarks, "must ever excite the feelings and enthusiasm of the admirers of genius, moral worth, and almost unlimited talent—namely, the scene of Sir John Herschel's recent labours." This position being invisible from the Observatory, and also from Cape Town, it became necessary to choose a fourth station; and, accordingly King's Block-house Battery was fixed upon, which commanded a view of the other stations, and also of the base line. The measurement of the base line was

commenced on the 17th of June; Sir J. Herschel Lieut. Williams, and Mr. C. Piazzi Smyth, taking part in the work. On computing the triangles, and making the proper reductions, the distance between Mrs. De Witt's chimney and the transit instrument was found to be 17,096 feet, and its distance from the perpendicular to the meridian 4579.5 feet: and the latitude of the Observatory being $33^{\circ} 56' 3.25'$, that of the chimney is $33^{\circ} 55' 18.24'$. The chimney is south-west of Lacaille's Observatory, about 120 feet, or 115 on the meridian, therefore the latitude of his Observatory was $33^{\circ} 55' 17.11'$. Lacaille assumed it to be $33^{\circ} 55' 15'$. The remainder of the paper is devoted to a description of the heights, distances, and bearings of the mountains about Klyp-Fonteyn, which were ascertained with some exactness, and a map constructed, to convey an idea of their form, and probable influence on the zenith sector.

ORIENTAL TRANSLATION COMMITTEE.

Several offers of translations were received, but the following were the only works taken into consideration.—Baron Mac Gueckin de Slane proposed a translation of Ibn Khalikan's Lives of Illustrious Men. The committee resolved, that the proposal should be accepted provided the translation was made into English.

Professor Wilson proposed to translate the Rig Veda, and announced that his translation of the Vishnu Purana was in a state of forwardness.

The President of the Armenian College, at Venice, was elected a Corresponding Member.

A set of the books published by the Oriental Translation Committee was voted to E. W. Lane, Esq., as a testimony of respect for his services to Oriental Literature, and an acknowledgment of the valuable assistance he has afforded the Committee.

STATISTICAL SOCIETY.

April 15.—The Rt. Hon. Holt Mackenzie, V.P., in the chair.—Six new members were elected.

The Vice Presidents, appointed by the President for the current year, are Lord Sandon, M.P., the Rt. Hon. Sturges Bourne, the Rt. Hon. Holt Mackenzie, and James Heywood, Esq., Dr. Clandenning to be Hon. Secretary in the place of Mr. Heywood.

The paper read was a report to the Council from the Committee on Vital Statistics, on the subject of the next general census of the population in 1841. The Committee recommend that the influence of the Society should be especially directed to securing the adoption by the government of the question of age among the questions for the census of 1841; and further, that the number of baptisms and burials entered in the parish registers should be included; and they observe, that the publication (similar to that of 1831) of the ages of all who have died in England from 1831 to 1840 would be productive of great benefit.

In the course of a conversational discussion many useful suggestions were made for the greater efficiency and utility of the next general census, and the subject was recommended to the Council for further and more elaborate consideration.

INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

March 19.—The President in the chair.

On Mr. Smeaton's "Estimate of Animal Power, extracted from his MS. papers," by John Farey.

The amount of mechanical power has been frequently over-stated, in consequence of the conclusions being drawn from efforts continued for too short a time. Desaguliers estimated the power of a man as equal to raising 5507lb. one foot high per minute; this was found by Smeaton to be too high; several experiments are recorded, in which different values are assigned to the power of a man, and he ultimately fixed it at about two-thirds of the above, or 3672lb. Several experiments are recorded of the estimate of the power of a horse, and of the quantity of water raised by various machines. The communication is accompanied by a letter in Mr. Smeaton's handwriting, dated 21st Feb. 1789.

"Account of the firing of gunpowder under water, by the voltaic battery at Chatham, March 16, 1839, under the direction of Col. Pasley." By F. Brahm, Jun., and C. Manby.

Exp. 1.—A tin canister containing 45lb. of powder was sunk in deep water, and the coil containing the conducting wires, one-fifth of an inch in diameter, by which the powder was to be fired, was veered out

to its whole length of 500 feet from the boat in which the voltaic battery was placed. The connexion being made, the explosion was instantaneous, and the concussion was felt very sensibly on the shore. Exp. 2.—Three canisters, each containing a charge of 5lb., were sunk at a distance of 50 or 60 feet from each other, and a pair of connecting wires, 100 feet long, was attached to each: the ends of these wires were soldered together by threes, and on the connexion being made only one of the canisters was fired. The wires in this experiment were of common copper bell wire, about one-sixteenth of an inch in diameter. The voltaic battery used was one of Professor Daniell's improved construction.*

March 26.—The President in the chair.

The following were balloted for and elected:—G. A. Oldham, as Graduate; Sir John Scott Lillie, Captain Vetch, and J. C. Shaw, as Associates.

"Description of a Sawing Machine for cutting off Railway Bars." By Joseph Glynn.

The advantage of having the ends of the railway bars cut as nearly square as possible, that they may truly abut against each other, is so great, that many attempts have been made to effect it. The author in this communication describes the method which is adopted at the Butterley Works in the manufacture of the rails for the Midland Counties Railway. In general the ends, rough and ragged as they come from the circular saw, but the accuracy in this case depends on the workmen presenting the bar at right angles to the plane of the saw. As this cannot be insured, the difficulty is here obviated as follows. The axis of the saws and the bed of the machine, which is exactly like that of a slide lathe, are placed at right angles with the line of the rolls in which the rails are made; the saws are fixed in headstocks and slide upon the bed, so as to adjust them for cutting the rails to the exact length of an inch in thickness, with teeth of the usual size in circular saws for wood, and make 1000 revolutions per minute; the teeth are in contact with the hot iron too short a period to receive any damage, but to prevent all risk the lower edge of the saw dips in a cup of water. The saw plate is secured between two discs of cast iron faced with copper, and exposed only at the part necessary for cutting through the rail. The rail on leaving the rolls is hastily straightened with wooden mallets on a cast iron plate, on which it lies right for sawing, and sufficiently hot; thus a considerable saving of time, labour, and heat, is effected. The rail is brought into contact at the same time with the two saws, and both ends are cut off by one operation. If the saws be sharp and the iron hot, the 78 lb. rails are cut through in twelve seconds. The rail on leaving the saws is placed in a groove planed in a thick cast iron plate; thus all warping is prevented. The author then describes certain mechanical arrangements, which are exhibited in detail in the drawing accompanying the communication.

"A description of the Turnbridges on the Herefordshire and Gloucestershire Canal." By Stephen Ballard.

In taking to pieces the old turnbridges on the Herefordshire and Gloucestershire Canal, the author observed that the spikes used to fix the planks down to the carriers had caused the decay of the timber; that the balance weights of stone confined in a box under the planks kept the timber very moist; that the timbers near the ground where there was not a free circulation of air, and the wood wherever it was pierced with iron, were decayed. In the bridges now described, no spikes are used to fix down the planks, but the planks are held in their places by two flat rods extending the whole length of the planking. The author then describes in detail, by reference to the drawing accompanying the communication, the peculiar method of construction which he has adopted. The planks are three-eighths of an inch apart, so that dirt and wet may not lodge in the joints. The bridge is balanced by two stones hung at the ends of the swing poles of about 6 cwt. each. The four principal carriers are supported by three cast iron bearers fixed to a grooved circle, which rests on cast iron bulls running in another grooved circle. By this con-

* The preparation of the conducting wires and mode of discharge appeared to be the same as described in Mr. Bethell's communication of last session.—*Ath. 1839*, p. 412.

truction no planks are pierced with spikes; the box of stones is got rid of, and a free access of air is obtained; and the peculiar causes of destruction to which turnbridges are exposed, are, it is conceived, in a great measure obviated.

‘Description of an instrument for setting out the width of cuttings and embankments of Railways, Canals, or Roads, as particularly applicable to falling or side-lying ground.’ By Henry Carr.

The object of this instrument is to facilitate the operation of determining the distance of the outer lockspit from the centre line of a cutting or embankment, by avoiding all calculation, and reducing the usual three-fold operation into one. The principle of its construction is the formation of a half cross section, which may be easily altered to suit all cases with regard to base, side slope, and inclination of surface. The construction of the instrument is described in great detail by reference to the drawing accompanying the communication. The author states that he set out a portion of the South Eastern Railway with this instrument, and found it answer exceedingly well. The experience of the first instrument has suggested some improvements in its construction, which are represented in a second drawing.

‘Observations on the present mode of executing Railways, with suggestions for a more economical yet equally sufficient system of both executing and working them.’ By Francis Whishaw.

The author at the commencement of this paper alludes to the principal causes of the great differences between the original estimate and cost of railways. Among these he enumerates the imperfect knowledge of the strata, which occasions the cuttings and embankments to be formed with slopes which are dangerous, and add to their cost—the imperfect formation of the embankments, especially in clayey soils, which in the opinion of the author ought to be carried up in layers or courses of from one and a half to two yards in thickness, sufficient time being allowed for subsidence before the next layer is added—the cost of stations, which in some of the great lines forms a considerable proportion of the whole cost. He then proceeds to suggest means for effecting a considerable saving in the original cost of railways, a certain method of preventing accidents by collision, a saving in the annual expenditure, and a better adaptation of the locomotive engine to its work. With these views he proposes a single line of rails, that the line should be divided with intermediate engine stations,—three on the London and Birmingham, for instance, the engines at each being suited to the prevailing gradient of the line. Thus, a line of railway may be more easily laid out, as one or two unfavourable inclines will not affect the working of the whole. At each station there must be a small portion of an additional line of rails, and also at other convenient intervals. The mode of working such a line is as follows: Engines start simultaneously in each direction from the terminal and intermediate stations. These engines will pass each other at one of the portions of the double line, and the engine being reversed and taking the other train, will return to the station from whence it started, when another exchange of trains takes place. Thus there is a regular interchange of loads throughout the day, and each engine is confined to its own portion of the line, and then it is impossible that a collision can take place. Equal accommodation would be afforded to the public; and the engine man, from being always confined to the same small portion of the line, would be perfectly conversant with every part of it. The saving which would on this system be effected on the original cost, is estimated at more than 5000*l.* per mile.

April 23.—The President in the chair.

The following were balloted for and elected:—T. J. Maude, W. Pearce, S. B. Worthington, as Graduates; J. C. Prior, Lieut. R. C. Moody, R.E., as Associates.

‘On Steam Boilers and Steam Engines.’ By Josiah Parkes.

In a preceding communication † the author had treated of the amount of evaporation in different kinds of boilers in common use; in the present, he treats of their peculiar and relative merits as evaporative vessels, the laws which regulate the amount of evaporation for assigned heated surfaces, and the practical rules whereby the performance of boilers

may be tested. The water evaporated and fuel consumed, had been tabulated in the previous communication; the author now gives the dimensions of the several boilers—the area of the grates—the area of heat-absorbing surfaces—and the rates of combustion and evaporation. The connexion of the boiler with the engine as regards the proportion of boiler to engine power, is reserved for consideration in a subsequent communication: the attention is now confined to the influence of the proportions of the parts on the performance of boilers for a given weight of coal. Evaporation may be considered as the measure of the useful effect obtained from any weight of fuel, or, together with the duty done by an engine, the measure of the useful effect of a given weight of water in the shape of steam. The author insists on the importance of ascertaining with accuracy, the weight of the water which in the shape of steam has passed through the cylinder of an engine. The weight of water or quantity of steam requisite for producing a given effect or duty, was the subject of continual research by Smeaton, and the basis of Watt’s discoveries. The author being led to make observations on evaporation twenty years ago, soon perceived that the completeness and rate of combustion, the proportion of the grates to the combustion effected upon them, and to the whole heat-absorbing surface, were important elements in evaporative economy. These elements, in the author’s own experiments at Warwick—where slow combustion was pushed to nearly its furthest limit—in those of Smeaton at Long Bennington—of Rennie and Watt at the Albion Mills—of M. De Pambour on the locomotive engine, in which intensity of combustion and evaporative power are at their highest limits—of Nicholas Wood on the Killingworth Engine—and of Mr. Henwood and others on the Cornish Boiler, are the data for the analysis of the principle, which the author now attempts to develop as the true principles of evaporative economy. ‡ The authentic facts here recorded of the working of boilers and engines of established credit and notoriety, will enable the employer of any boiler or engine to compare his practice with specimens of acknowledged and well-attested merit. The results derived from the above data are arranged in a tabular form, so as to exhibit at once the relation which any one property and the several parts of the boiler bear to any other, and to the effects produced, the amount and activity of the combustion (to which the author assigns the term *calorific forces*), and the modifications it experiences by the structure and disposition of the several parts. There are also certain quantities and relations which exert a peculiar influence over the results, which being rightly ascertained are exponential or indicative of the practice of each particular boiler: these Mr. Parkes calls the *exponents* of that boiler, and are as follows:—The quantity of coal burnt under a boiler in a given time,—the quantity burnt on each square foot of grate per hour,—the quantity of water evaporated per square foot of heated surface,—and the number of pounds of water evaporated by a given quantity of coal. Besides this, the influence of *time*, that is, the time of duration of any given portion of heat about a boiler, and about equal areas of surface, demands our most attentive consideration, and is specially treated of at the close of the paper. It appears most distinctly, that the boilers, tested as to their merit by their respective evaporative economy, arrange themselves in the inverse order of the rate of combustion. The Cornish boiler, being greatly superior to all the others when tested in this manner, as well also as in respect of time, is selected as the standard of comparison, whereby to mark the scale of descent from the highest point of excellence yet attained in evaporative economy. For this purpose then the Cornish results are considered as unity.

The values of the exponents for the Cornish, wagon, and locomotive boiler respectively, are collected together in the following table, which will serve to show, at one glance, the respective values of the boilers on this comparison:—

Boiler.	lh.	lb.
Cor.	1.0 of coal, burnt under one boiler in 44.06 seconds.	
*Wag.	1.0 ditto	ditto
Loc.	1.0 of coke,	ditto

‡ The author has been unable to obtain any similar data for the *Marine Boiler*.

* The results for the wagon boiler are the mean for eight boilers.

Boller.	lb.	3.4 of coal burnt on each square foot of grate per hour.
Wag.	10.7	ditto
Loc.	79.3 of coke,	ditto
Cor.	1.0 of water evaporated by 1 square foot of heated surface, per hour, from 21°.	
Wag.	7.1	ditto
Loc.	12.0	ditto
Cor.	11.8 of water evaporated by 1 lb. of coal from 21°.	
Loc.	7.2	ditto
Loc.	5.4	1 lb. of coke, ditto 1 lb. of coal, ditto

The Cornish boiler possesses some peculiar advantages, both as regards structure, and the practice of slow combustion; since, by the former, great strength is attained, and, by the latter, time is given for the complete combination of air with the heated fuel, for the transmission of heat through the metal, and for the escape of the steam through the water. The plates of the Cornish boiler are usually half an inch thick, whereas those of a low pressure boiler are usually $\frac{1}{2}$ to 5-16ths of an inch thick: thus a much larger extent of surface is necessary to transmit a given quantity of heat in a given time in the former than in the latter case. The Cornish engineers allow seven times as much surface as in the general wagon boiler practice for the evaporation of equal weights of water in equal times, and twelve times as much as in the locomotive; from which there is a gain of from 30 to 40 per cent. in the former, and of 64 with coke, and 100 with coal, in the latter case. The wagon boiler has great disadvantages of structure, being ill adapted to resist internal pressure, liable to collapse, and greatly affected by incrustation. According to the above table, which exhibits the mean of eight experiments, the combustion is $2\frac{1}{4}$ times more rapid per boiler, and 3 times more rapid per square foot of grate per hour, and the rate of evaporation is 7 times greater than in the Cornish. The loss of heat, the Cornish being unity, is $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. The construction of the locomotive boiler is so very different from that of every other species of evaporative vessel, that no strict analogy can be drawn between it and any other. From the above practical results, it appears that the rate of combustion, per boiler, is nearly 7 times, and per square foot of grate, per hour, 23 times more rapid: that the rate of evaporation, from equal surfaces, is twelve times more rapid than in the Cornish boiler. The loss of heat, the Cornish being unity, 51 per cent. The author discusses, at length, the varying circumstances connected with different boilers, and the corresponding influence on the above results, and particularly the system of management by which he was enabled, with a wagon boiler, to approach the Cornish results. The table accompanying this paper will frequently enable the intelligent employer of a boiler to ascertain the best proportion of parts and the best practice. For, having decided on the quantity of steam he requires, he knows the quantity of fuel which will generate it if he adopts the measures of surface and proportions of parts which have given relative effects; or he can ascertain whether his present practice be good or defective. Notwithstanding the great stride which has been made in the economy of fuel by the Cornish engineers, the sources of waste are still great; and we may hope for great advances in evaporative economy, when combustion, as a science and practical art, has received the attention which it merits. The effect of a different practice, as regards rapidity of combustion and arrangement of parts, entirely disturbs the relation between boilers of equal surfaces: the table shows an almost perfect identity in the total, the radiant, and the communicative areas between the mean of eight experiments on the wagon and eleven on the locomotive boiler; and the locomotive boiler would present between 3 and 4 times greater surface to absorb the heat generated on the grate, than the wagon, if the rate of combustion were the same in both; but the rate of combustion is seven times more rapid in the locomotive, and consequently the locomotive does not offer one-half the surface of the wagon boiler for the absorption of the heat produced from equal weights of fuel in the same time. The result of this discordant practice is a loss, by the locomotive, of one-third of the heat which is realized in the wagon boiler: that the rate of evaporation from equal surfaces is augmented in the locomotive by 65 per cent., so that the increase of evaporative power is attended by a sacrifice of 33 per cent. of

fuel. The locomotive possesses peculiar advantages in the thinness of the metal composing the tubes, and the subdivision of the heat, but these are more than neutralized by the exceedingly short period of the duration of the heat from any given quantity of fuel about the boiler. This most important subject of time is discussed in a series of propositions based on the following principles. The structure of the boiler and its mode of setting occasion the heat to travel greater or less distances, and over very unequal extents of surface in equal times, and the value of time will be appreciated by referring it to the rate of combustion, to the distance passed over by the products of combustion before they quit the boiler, and to the time in which the heat traverses the boiler, and to the period of the duration of the heat about equal areas of surface. These remarkable elements give rise to eleven propositions, which are fully discussed and illustrated by tabulated results. The peculiar action which takes place on the metal of the boilers, is indicated by the phrase, *intensity of calorific action*, since there are involved many actions which are entirely independent of the temperature of the fire. The relations furnished by some of these propositions, are facts as regards the relative action of the fires, and furnish approximate measures of the effects of different systems of practice on the durability of the boiler.

HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY.

May 1.—The anniversary meeting was held this day, Dr. Henderson, V.P., in the chair. From the Report of the Auditors it appeared, that the receipts of the past year were 5,721*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.*; and the expenditure 5,664*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*, including a bond paid off to the amount of 500*l.*, whilst there was a present balance of 375*l.* 0*s.* 1*d.* In addition to this bond, which was cancelled, the Council had directed notice to be given for the discharge of two others, for 200*l.* and 100*l.* The bonded debt was now 9,850*l.*, and that on open account 2,556*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.*, making together 12,406*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.*, which did not include 430*l.* due for medals awarded. Against this amount was to be placed 7,101*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* due to the Society, including the cash balance, but exclusive of the annual subscriptions due on the 1st instant. The other assets of the Society comprise the house, furniture, and library in Regent Street, and the garden at Chiswick, and their intrinsic value exceeds considerably the liabilities of the Society. The election of officers and council then took place, when his Grace the Duke of Devonshire was re-elected President; and Mr. Pendarves, M.P., Mr. J. R. Gowen, and Mr. R. Jolly, were chosen members of the council, in the room of the Hon. W. F. Strangways, L. Holland, Esq., and Mr. J. A. Henderson.

SOCIETY OF ANTIQUARIES.

April 11.—Hudson Gurney, Esq., V.P., in the chair.

Sir Gore Ouseley exhibited an ancient spur, curious on account of its enormous size, and very richly ornamented. M. de Gerville presented casts of a stone mould, found at Montaigu, near Volignies, and of a bronze mould, found in the forest of Breequebec, France. These moulds were stated to have been made for casting cels, but we imagine that they were used for hatchets, and have seen them of precisely the same form in the illuminations of MSS. of the middle ages. A paper, by Mr. Bond, was then partly read 'On the early history of the Italians who, being in a state of great oppression and distress, formed into bands for mutual support and defence, and thence became traders and money-lenders over Europe.'

April 18.—Hudson Gurney, Esq., V.P., in the chair.

William Tyte, Esq., F.R.S., was elected.—The report of the Auditors was read.—Mr. Halliwell exhibited a drawing on vellum of three figures with singular costumes. He considered them to belong to the fifteenth century, but there was no clue to their date with the exception of the name "Pisanus" in one corner. A paper, by Mr. Halliwell, was then read, 'On the antiquity of Free-Masonry in England.' It gave an account of a curious MS. of the fourteenth century, now in the British Museum, which contains a history of a society of free-masons formed under King Athelstane. Mr. Halliwell announced his intention of printing the MS. entire. Mr. Smith communicated an account, with drawings, of two tessellated pavements,

found at Basildon, near Pangbourn, Berks, and subsequently destroyed by the rail-road makers. Part of a letter addressed to Captain Beaufort was read, from the commander of H.M. schooner *Magpie*, announcing, that while surveying the Gulf of Kos, he had discovered several remains of the ancient city of Keramus. Mr. G. P. Harding exhibited a copy in water-colour of a large painting of the ancient family of Clifford, of Skipton Castle, Yorkshire. The original picture is much defaced, but Mr. Harding's copy had the defective portions restored.

ZOOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

April 29.—The anniversary meeting took place this day, Lord Braybrooke in the chair. It appeared from the Report of the Auditors, that the amount of the receipts for the past year was 14,094*l.* 2*s.* 9*d.*, and of the expenditure 12,588*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.* The assets consist of living and preserved collections; uncertain arrears of subscriptions, 900*l.* 15*s.*; invested in Exchequer bills, 209*l.* 6*s.*; in land on the farm at Kingston, 11,000*l.*; capital funded, 11,291*l.* 12*s.* 7*d.*; and cash in the banker's hands, 341*l.* 2*s.* The liabilities are, bills unpaid, 954*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*; rent unpaid, 820*l.* 1*s.* 10*d.*; and contracts pending, 304*l.*

The Report of the Council was next read. It stated that steps had been taken greatly to reduce the permanent expenditure. In 1837 the salaries were 3,548*l.*, but from this year they would be reduced to 2,916*l.*, making a saving in this department of 632*l.*; whilst the expenses of the general establishment, which, on the average of the last few years, were 880*l.*, having been reduced to 541*l.*, would leave a balance of 339*l.* An increase had taken place in the cost of provisions, which was to be ascribed to an increase in the number of animals, and amongst other circumstances to the growth of the larger elephant. Memorials had been addressed to the Lords of the Treasury, soliciting a reduction of rent for the gardens, and particularly the north garden, which was charged at the rate of building land; but no answer had yet been received: from which it was inferred that their application was still under consideration. Every resource of revenue over which the Council had control had increased, and an additional income derived from the gardens of 1,720*l.* There were now 3,010 members, and thirty-eight candidates for election; the number of Corresponding Members was 126, of whom eight had been elected since the last meeting. The Museum contained 1,228 specimens, of which 760 were characterized species of mammalia; 5,230 birds, to which 113 had been added since last year, and of which 5,000 were named; 1,000 specimens of reptiles; 1,170 fishes; and 83 mounted skeletons. The animals were in good health, and many valuable additions had been made to the library. Although the Council had not been able to dispose of the land at Kingston, they hoped soon to do so advantageously. The meeting then proceeded to the election of officers:—The Earl of Derby was re-elected President; Charles Drummond, Esq., Treasurer; and the Rev. John Barlow, M.A., Secretary. The new members elected on the Council were the Right Hon. T. Frankland Lewis, Messrs. Charles Darwin, W. Ogilby, J. Whishaw, and W. Yarrell; in the room of the Bishop of Norwich, Sir J. P. Boileau, Col. Sykes, and Prof. Owen.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF LITERATURE.

April 25.—The anniversary meeting was this day held, the Earl of Ripon in the chair. It appeared from the Report of the Auditors, that the receipts of the past year amounted to 805*l.*, and the expenditure to 805*l.*: that the series of works to be called *Biographia Britannica Literaria*, are in progress, and that an introductory address on Anglo-Saxon Literature and Learning, will shortly be published. For these publications a separate fund has been raised. Mr. Tooke was elected treasurer, and Sir John Doratt, librarian, in the room of Mr. Jacobs and the Rev. H. Clissold, resigned.

A special meeting of the Society was held on Monday the 22nd, for the purpose of receiving the distinguished secretaries of the Archaeological Institute at Rome, the Chevalier Bunsen and Dr. Lipsius, now on a visit to this country; on which occasion the Chevalier read a very learned essay on the Authors and the Age of the Great Pyramids; and on Tuesday the 30th, another on the Antiquities of Rome recently discovered.

BOTANICAL SOCIETY.—April 19.—Dr. Willshire in the chair.—The following papers were read: 'Observations on the genera *Potentilla* and *Tomentilla*', by Mr. W. H. White. Mr. White planted some plants of the *Potentilla reptans* and was surprised to find a very great difference in them, some of them consisting of two whorls, the larger whorl, alternate with the petals, varied but little both in size or shape, but in the smaller whorl some of the sepals were as large as those in the larger whorl, and others diminutive in size, and differing also in shape, some of them being ovate lanceolate, others linear, and others again ovate and broad.

A paper was also commenced from Mr. A. Wallis, being a 'Catalogue of the Orchideæ of Essex, with remarks on their localities,' &c.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

MON.	{ Inst. of British Architects (<i>Annu.</i>)	Eight, P.M.
	Entomological Society	Eight.
	Architectural Society (<i>Visitors</i>)	Eight.
TUES.	Horticultural Society	Three.
	Institution of Civil Engineers	Eight.
	Linnæan Society	Three.
	Geological Society	1 p. Eight.
WED.	Medico-Botanical Society	Eight.
	Society of Arts	1 p. Seven.
	Literary Fund (<i>Annu.</i>)	1 p. Eight.
THUR.	Society of Antiquaries	Eight.
	Royal Society of Literature	Four.
FRI.	{ Astronomical Society	Eight.
	Royal Institution	1 p. Eight.

FINE ARTS.

SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS.

Grove nods to grove, each alley has its brother, is the motto most appropriate for this exhibition-room. The same admirable Copley Fieldings, and faithful Prouts, and homely, humorous Hunts, and picturesque Cattermoles, and pretty Sharpes and Claude-like Barretts—year after year, hang the walls of the same chamber in Pall Mall East. Let not, therefore, the public complain, if the critic, in spite of his best endeavours, should fall into the same epithets of praise and censure—and should single out the same subjects in particularizing the leading features of the exhibition. There is, indeed, less variety than usual this year; one of the most attractive members of the Society, Mr. Lewis, withdraws himself from the lists; while another, with whose merits we were less familiar, Mr. Lake Price, treads so closely in the steps of Mr. Cattermole, that a superficial observer might mistake the works of the one artist for early efforts of the other's pencil. But Mr. Lake Price has imparted a great attraction to the exhibition, by his interiors at Hardwick—Nos. 14 and 26—the latter being the Long Gallery, the scene of the ghostly midnight meeting of Mary Stuart and Queen Elizabeth, which makes such a solemn show among the traditions of that grand old house. Mr. Price's best drawing, however, is 81, the *Castle Hall, the Baron's Return*, a crowded composition of picturesque figures, collected in an apartment of massive and antique architecture, with great variety and grace in some of the groups and principal figures, and a most happy management of light. But this artist falls short of Mr. Cattermole, inasmuch as his colouring is thinner, and his touch (particularly in outline) more wiry,—in places, almost approaching to pen, not pencil-work. The parallel just made, and the difference just indicated, may be satisfactorily tested, by referring to No. 70, Mr. Cattermole's drawing of *Sir Walter Raleigh witnessing the Execution of the Earl of Essex*. It is true, that the armour of the Tower figures more prominently in this composition than the prisoners, but the drawing is a fine specimen of the artist's powers. A still more interesting work from the same hand, is 317, *Wanderers Entertained*, a group of wayfarers of the ancient time, who are partaking of the liberal old-world shelter and hospitality—with a monk to bless their cheer, and a wandering beggar to enliven it with a ballad, and a falconer to tell of the gallant sport of the morning. This is more carefully finished than many of Mr. Cattermole's former works—the figure of the sitting boy in the foreground, looking up from the smoking bowl, has almost the force of oil-painting: still, the whole design, whether as to spirit, or arrangement, or detail of individual countenance and attitude, wants novelty.

The place of honour in the room, is filled by Mr.

Tayler's *King Charles the First conveyed a Prisoner from Newcastle to Hornby House*, (160), a group of figures riding forward from beneath a grim archway, in which the royal captive forms the central point of attraction. This is a very clever drawing, though chargeable with that *streakiness* which constitutes Mr. Tayler's manner, as much as *spottiness* does that of Mr. Hills' drawings of animals. It is impossible to forget Vandyke, when Charles the First is in the question—and (being, perhaps, made unjust by the remembrance) we cannot but feel as if the "Martyr's" countenance was not done justice to by Mr. Tayler: but it is the most ambitious, careful, and successful work he has yet exhibited. Besides this, we find his usual contribution of trumpeters, knights, and pages, and a drawing of a class rather different, in which there is much to commend, (284), *The Vicar of Wakefield conveying Olivia home to her Family*. Here, strange to say, the figures are better than the horse. Dr. Primrose is as upright, simple, and compassionate as Goldsmith has represented him; and Olivia's prettiness has the confiding simplicity to be expected from one whose "washes for the face" ended in her being spirited away by so flimsy a rake as Squire Thornehill; but the dappled horse on which father and daughter jog disconsolately homeward, seems to us far too long-backed even to meet the exigencies of the most extensive pillion spread out for Dutchwoman's accommodation. Mr. Cristall's *Cynthia with her attendant Deus and Zephyrus* (46), is not to our taste; nor, in spite of much careful finishing, and some good contrivance, can we bring ourselves to admire Mr. Wright's *Vale of Idleness* (102)—his *Una* (124,) is far better, though too operatic—and best of all, that little morsel of prettiness—58, *The Lesson Neglected*, a costume figure in the very best style of Annual art. There are but few more figure-drawings which can be mentioned here—one being Mrs. Sneydharth's *German Lady and her Nurse* (116), which is an excellent specimen of that clever lady's management of rich colour, and conventional beauty. Another is Mr. Hunt's *Hermit* (141), which does not claim notice as better than his Peasant Boys eating, romping, frightening, and being frightened—his Hermit being but an Edie Ochiltree after all,—but because it is an attempt at something of a higher order. There are sundry "dainty pieces" by Mr. Stone—a very pretty *Bavarian Girl* (289), by Miss Eliza Sharpe, and a variety of small *property-groups* by Mr. Stephanoff, in which feathers, velvets, Spanish boots, and Milan corslets, are to do everything towards making an effect; and "the human face divine," nothing. From these, we are glad to pass to the real strength of the Water-colour Exhibition—the landscapes.

In spite, however, of their prominent excellence, our notice must necessarily be brief. Mr. Nesfield's name is one of the first in the catalogue, and accompanies a clever drawing of *Gordale Scar* (4). No. 62, *The Village of St. Remi*, deserves higher praise, inasmuch as the subject has more grandeur—but the atmosphere is English rather than Swiss. In *Windsor Park* (No. 122), the artist is most at home. Mr. Cox has never been in greater force than this year, as his *Lancaster Sands* (10), the first among many admirable drawings, attests. It might form no unworthy companion to Copley Fielding's *Salisbury Plain and Stonehenge* (122), which is one of the most magical of that indefatigable artist's magical down scenes. To follow him through the catalogue, would be to mark almost every tenth drawing: and yet we could not point out a single instance of failure, or slovenliness: his *Burlington Pier* (76.) seems to us the most intense in its effects of leaden sky and stormy water, of any of his sea-pieces. Messrs. Evans, and De Wint, and Barret, have many capital landscapes;—Mr. Harding one, (132), *Cochene on the Moselle*, of rare beauty and clearness, even for Mr. Harding. Mr. Bentley's tendency towards a smoky tint in place of shadow, (vide his *Garden Scene*, No. 17,) is the only obstacle to his becoming one of the very foremost among the water colourists. Mr. Callow has some clever drawings of foreign towns. Mr. Holland exhibits *The Monastery of Alcobaça*, (91) (a picturesque composition of fantastic architecture in a state of decay,) which Mr. Beckford ought to purchase. Mr. Prout has not his accustomed number of architectural studies, but in a beach scene,

(159), *After the Storm*, the lurid grandeur of colouring is very effective. Mr. Mackenzie's far-off "prospect" of *Versailles* (238), is interesting as a faithful representation of that magnificent pile of building.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

DRURY LANE.

This Evening, Monday, and during the Week, A GRAND PROMENADE CONCERT.

COVENT GARDEN.

This Evening, **HENRIQUE**, and **AGNES BERNAUER**,
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LYCEUM.

This Evening, Monday, and during the Week, A MILITARY PROMENADE CONCERT.

HER MAJESTY'S THEATRE.—Half-a-dozen lines are sufficient for the Opera chronicle of the week—the revival of 'Anna Boleina' offering no new features save the promising *début* of Signora Ernesta Grisi as Page—she possesses a smooth and winning *contralto* voice, flexible in execution, and easy in delivery;—and the clever acting of Signora Monnani, who looks and acts the part of *Jane Seymour* very well, though her singing is a failure, inasmuch as her voice *will not* be produced in tune, in spite of her best endeavours. 'Un Nuit de Bal' is a very pretty *divertissement*, with some elegant music from 'Le Domino Noir,' one gay ball scene, a clever dance with a mask by Bellon, another clever *pas* by Herminie Eissler, and a *Cachucha* by four ladies, which, though by no means symmetrically exact, is nevertheless piquant and agreeable. Mdlle. Pauline Garcia is announced to make her first appearance on Thursday in 'Otello.'

COVENT GARDEN.—Though Mr. Rooke's long-announced opera, '*Henrique*', was as successful on Thursday evening as numerous *encores* and vociferous applause could make it, we can neither admire it so much as his '*Amilie*', nor expect for it so long a popularity. The story, which is complicated and dull, relates the adventures of a disguised king of Spain, bound on a love pilgrimage, which leads him to the mountain-hold of a banished lord, father of the heroine, who has become the head of a gipsy band; and of course rivalries, concealments, surprises, conspiracies, must come and go in tolerable plenitude, ere the monarch can make *Alzine* queen; but they are so hackneyed and so clumsily arranged, as to excite little interest, while the words of the songs are vague, high-flown, and unfitted for musical purposes. With Mr. Rooke, indeed, this is of little consequence; for it is one of his peculiarities, by repetition and division, to destroy all form and semblance of rhythm in the text under his care; and hence his singers are sometimes harassed (as, for instance, in the martial air sung by Mr. Manvers and Miss Rainforth's *bravura* in the second act,) by strings of words nearly as rapid in succession and as utterly unvoiced as the pence-table. A like gratuitous and unmeaning dislocation pervades all the passages cast by him for recitative: in short, Mr. Rooke's technical want as a composer is continuity—some of his detached ideas are pretty and picturesque. We must specify that of the echo chorus in the first act, and of the gipsy chorus in the third; and there is a sprightly comic duett, to which the always clever Miss Horton and Mr. Manvers gave full effect; but beyond these, we cannot recall many bars in which fresh thoughts or dramatic effects are obvious—and this in spite of our having heard all *Henrique's* songs twice over.—*Henrique* being Mr. Harrison, who made his first appearance on the occasion, and was *encored* in everything he sang. As a tenor, this gentleman is a decided acquisition. There is a certain tone in his voice which we do not like, but which we would

hope may be cured by the same process of sedulous training and general cultivation which made him walk the stage so well, and, in spite of a shapeless figure, act so gracefully. This slight vulgarity got rid of, he will be a valuable, as he is now an efficient singer—with a pure, forcible delivery of his voice, and considerable musical skill and certainty. He was received throughout with the highest possible applause. Miss Rainforth, as heroine, did her best, and sang in her best tune: Mr. H. Phillips had a part which did not suit him; and the consequence was, a sort of *bow-wow* pathos thrown into the sorrows of the bereaved father (for the plot includes a missing daughter), which was absurd rather than touching. Mr. Leffler's beautiful voice is already on the wane. The opera was well dressed, carefully acted, and as carefully performed as the deficient orchestral resources of Covent Garden render practicable.

MISCELLANEA

Jupiter's Satellites.—An irregularity in the first satellite of Jupiter has for some time attracted the attention of M. Boguslawski, the director of the Observatory at Breslau. He observed it on the 14th of April, 1838, and on the 1st of May he made further observations, when he found, that its lustre, which, generally speaking, is greater than that of the second, appears to be much weaker when it quits the disc of the planet after its passage across, especially when its shadow is seen upon Jupiter. By means of the heliometer he kept the second satellite always by the side of the first, and at the same distance from the disc, in order to ascertain if the light of the planet were the cause of this diminution. For several hours after leaving the disc at $12^{\circ} 54' 26''.2$, sidereal time, the first satellite was evidently paler than the second: it then slowly began to resume its light, but which at $15^{\circ} 18'$ had not yet attained that of the second. The next day it had quite resumed its lustre, and again surpassed that of the second.

Paleontology.—The indefatigable M. Lartet, of whose labours we have so often spoken, announces the discovery of two fossil Carnivora, one of which appears to constitute a sub-genus, intermediate between the badger and the otter, and the second approaching to the dog, differing but little from that gigantic fossil which he has described under the name of *Amphicyon*. He is of opinion that the latter is the same animal as that of which some remains were found at Epelsheim, and which constitutes the genus *Agnotherium* of M. Kaup. "There are," says M. Lartet, "a considerable number of fossil mammalia found on the borders of the Rhine, which appear to me to be identical with those which are daily brought to light at the foot of the Pyrenees. These affinities are the more interesting, because the intermediate countries, Auvergne, for instance, possessed very different races of animals."

Temperature of Flowers.—MM. Van Beek and Bergsma have been making some curious observations on the temperature of the flowers of the *Colocasia odora*, with the thermometric needles of MM. Becquerel and Breschet. On the 5th of September, 1838, the spadix had acquired the extraordinary temperature of 43° centigrade, while the atmosphere stood at 21° , thereby forming a difference of 22° .

New species of Fungus.—M. Kickx, Professor at the University of Ghent, has announced a new fungus gathered in the island of Cuba by some naturalists on a scientific expedition on the part of the Belgian government in America. It forms a species of the genus *Polyporus*, and has an odour resembling that of myrrh, which has caused M. Kickx to name it *Myrrhinus*. The professor takes this opportunity of reporting a means of augmenting the intensity of odoriferous emanations from a plant, without injury to it, and which consists simply in waving a flower for some minutes over a phial containing ammonia.

Polypus.—A new *Polypus* has been discovered in the Black Sea, on the leaves of the *Zostera marina*, and has consequently been named *Tendera zostericola*. It somewhat resembles the *Eschara* and *Halodactyle* in general formation, but is remarkable for having the different individuals united in linear series, and yet varying from each other in outer, as well as internal form; giving rise to the supposition that they are males and females.

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